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SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS**

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**Proceedings of the
Twelfth Annual Meeting of the
National Association of
Secondary-School Principals**

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

February 27, 28 and 29, 1928

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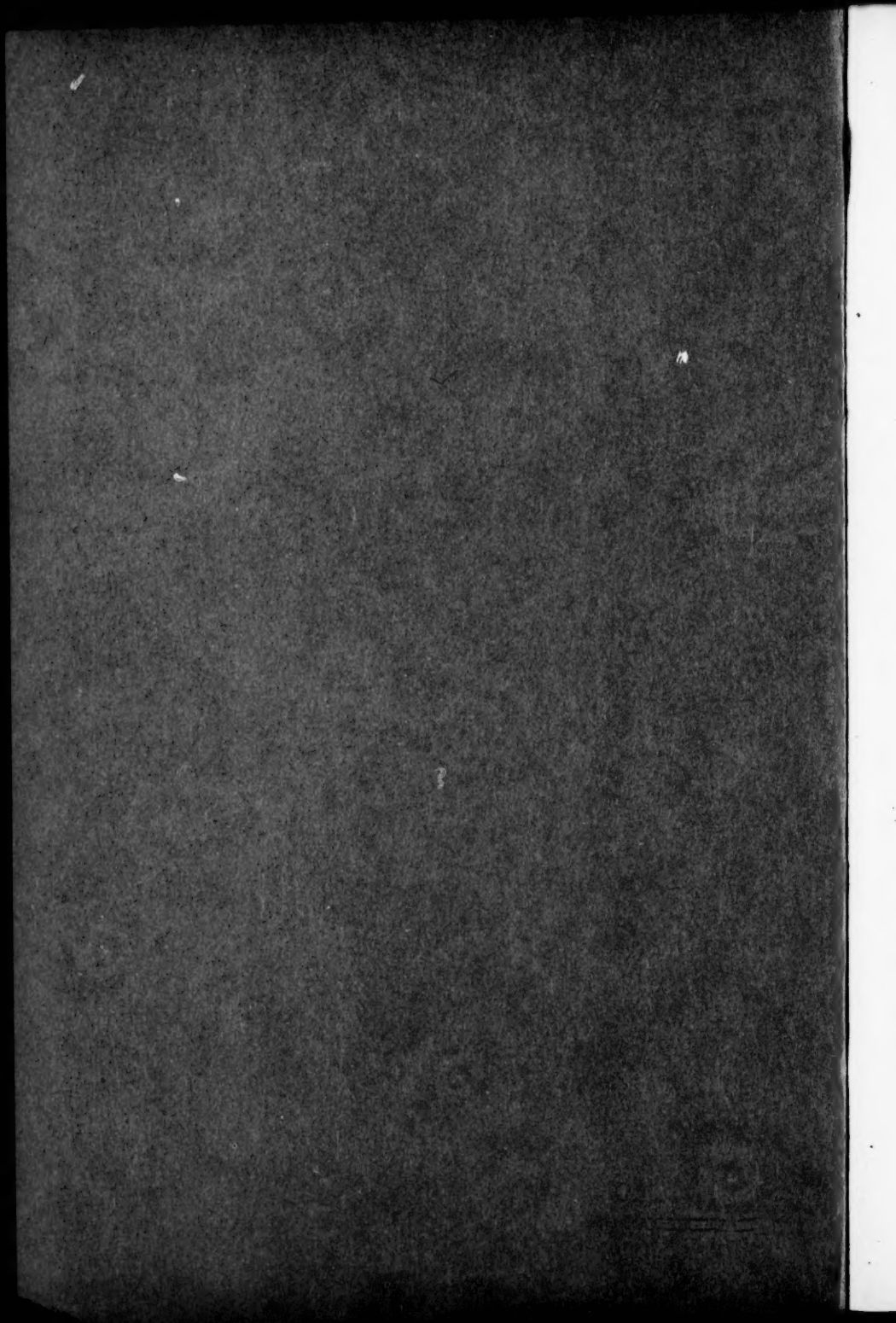
**NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

H. V. CHURCH, *Secretary*

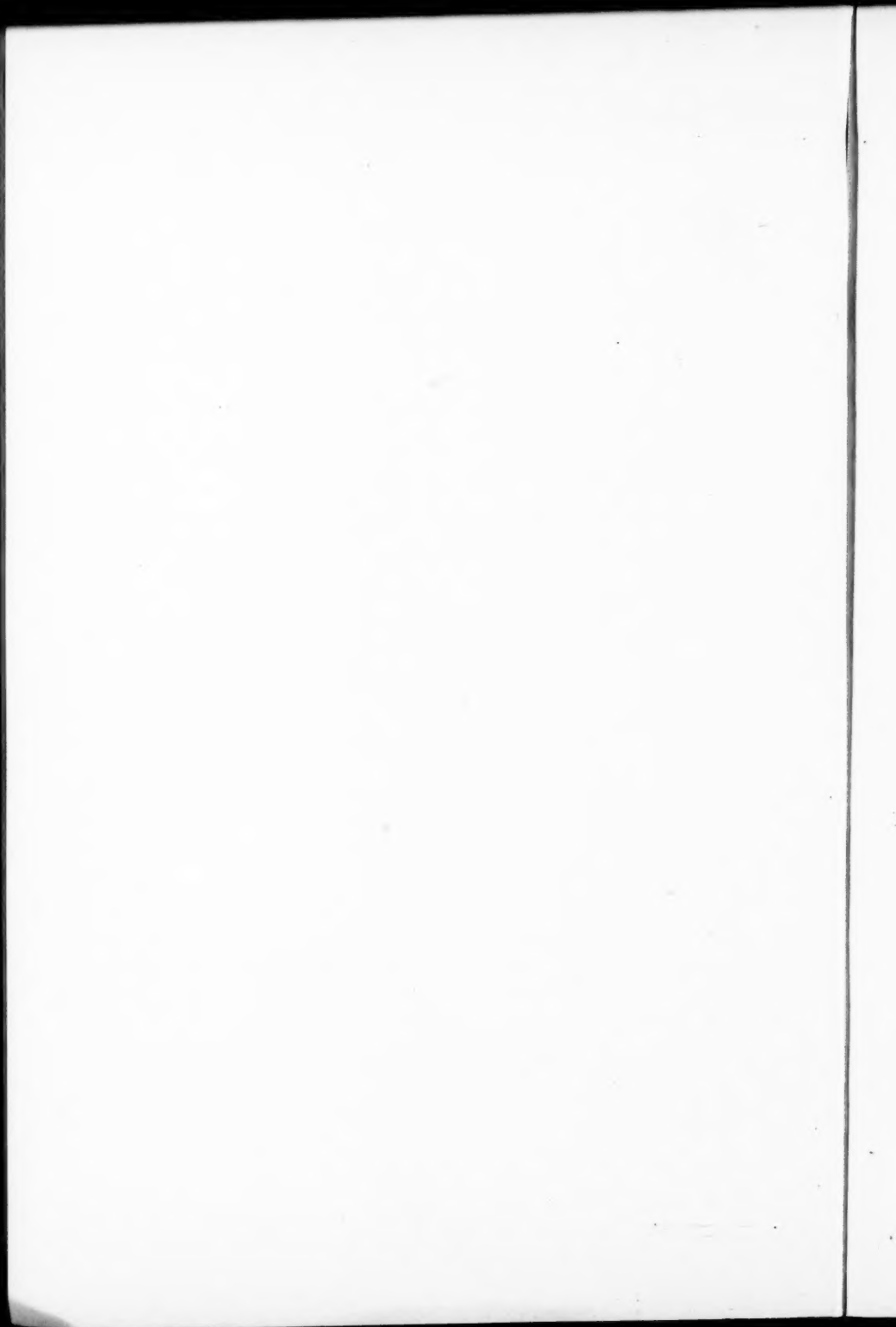
3129 Wenonah Avenue, BERWYN, ILLINOIS

J. Sterling Morton High School

CICERO, ILLINOIS



**NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**



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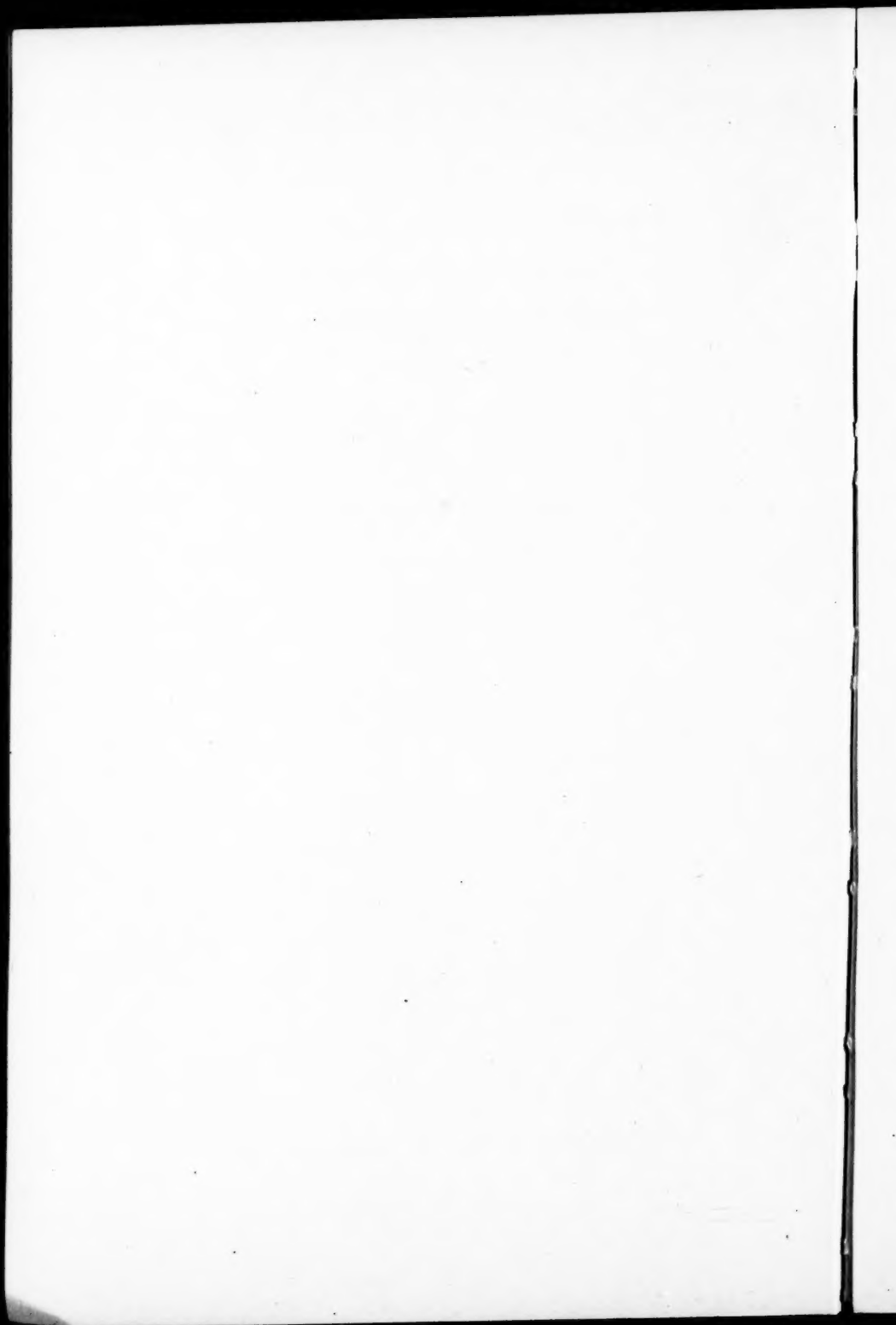


Edited by

H. V. CHURCH

Secretary of the Association

Published by the Association, 1928



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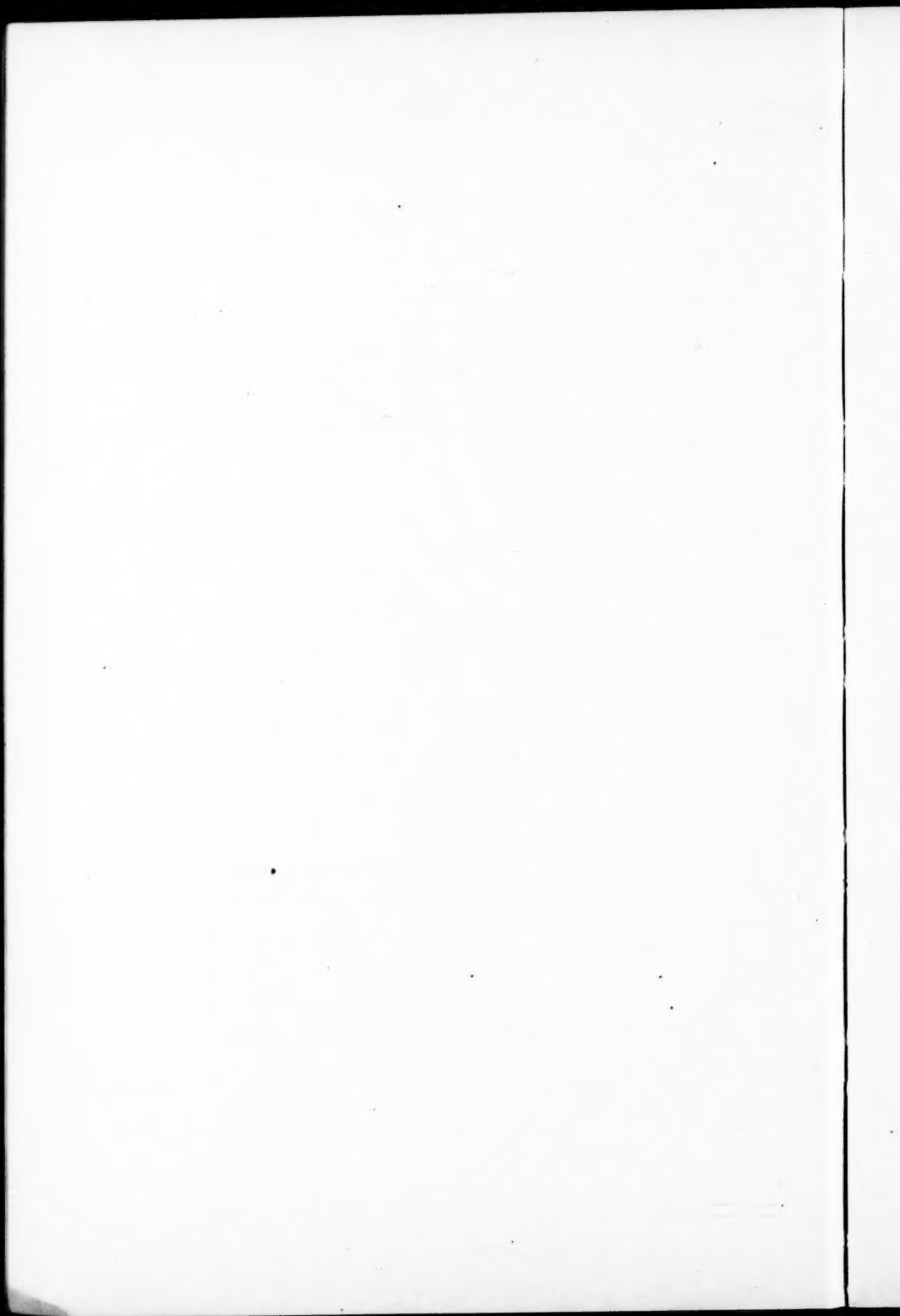
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1927-1928

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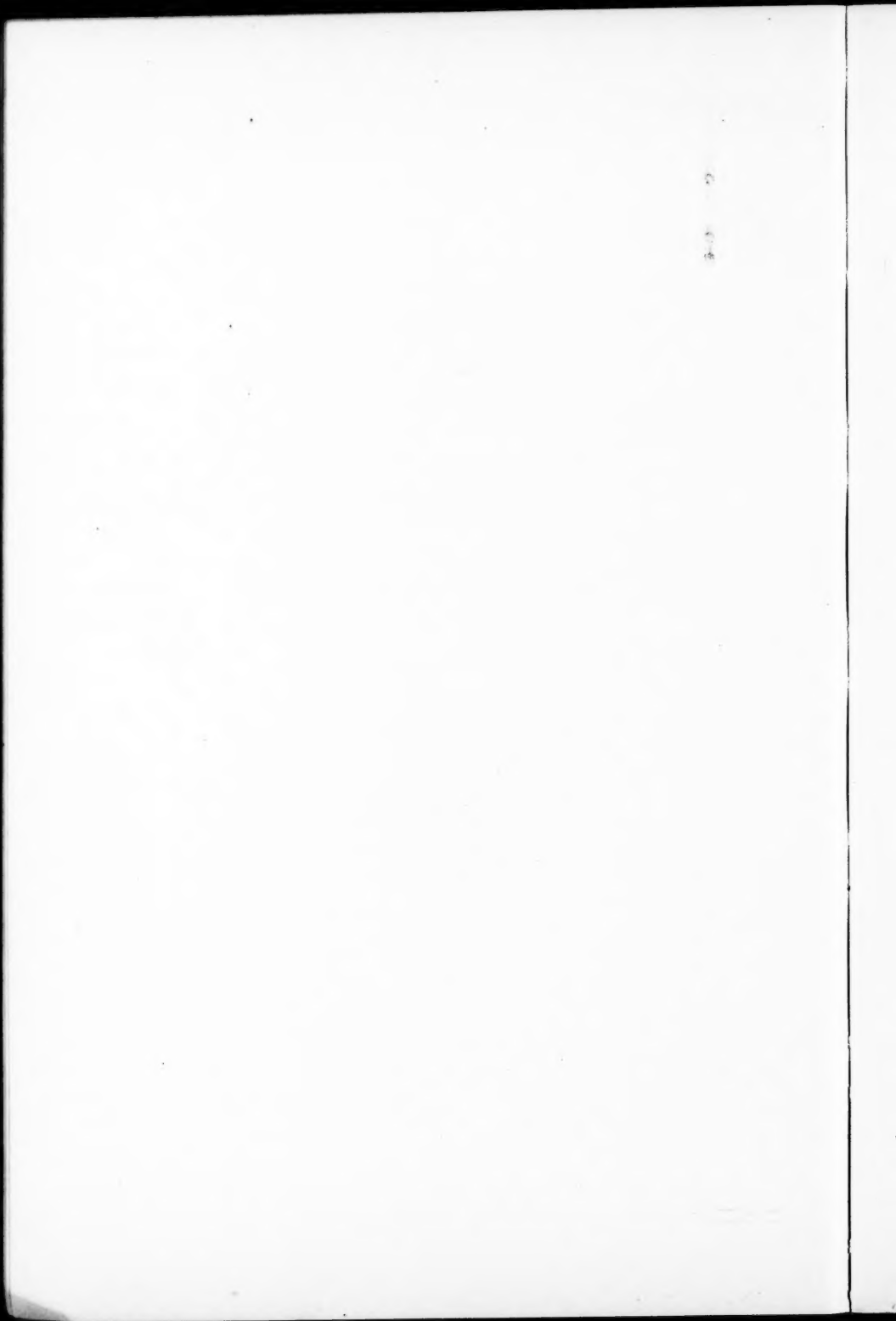
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TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION

The twelfth annual convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was held in Boston, Massachusetts, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 27, 28, and 29, 1928.

FIRST SESSION

The first session of the twelfth annual meeting was called to order at 2:13 P.M. Monday, February 27, 1928, in the Ball Room of Hotel Statler by the President of the Association, Francis Leonard Bacon.

Mr. J. M. Gwinn, President of the Department of Superintendence and Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, California, brought greetings from the Department of Superintendence, wished the Association a successful meeting, and outlined the program of the Department of Superintendence for the next year.

Mr. George S. Counts, associate director of the International Institute, Teachers College, Columbia University, prefaced his paper by a bit of prophecy that Russia and the United States would become the two great nations of the world. Mr. Count spoke without notes.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF SOVIET RUSSIA

GEORGE S. COUNTS,
TEACHERS COLLEGE

The history of education offers no parallel to the transformation which has been worked in the educational system of Russia since the October revolution. As a direct consequence of this great upheaval the control of education was at once shifted to a new social class, the purpose of education was fundamentally altered, and the very conception of education was greatly widened. In obedience to these changes and within the brief space of ten years the entire educational program has been reconstructed, the administrative organization has been made to assume a new form, the system of schools has been profoundly modified, many new educational institutions have been created, the materials of instruction have been overhauled, and the methods of teaching have been reformulated. In a word, an alto-

gether new turn has been given the evolution of education in Russia. This fact is indisputable. What of good or ill it may hold for either the Russian people or the world at large, only the passing years can reveal. But it is an event of such magnitude that it can be neither ignored nor forgotten.

The Purpose of Education.—The most significant change which has been effected by the Revolution is of course the change in the purpose of education. Under the old regime the school was an instrument for the support of the House of Romanoff, the Greek Church, and, in general, the social and political *status quo*. Under the new regime the school is an instrument in the hands of a dominant minority engaged in the creation of a socialistic and coöperative commonwealth. To be sure, according to official pronouncements, education in Soviet Russia embraces the threefold purpose of fostering the development of an efficient economic system, of promoting the organization of the political life of the Union, and of furthering the evolution of national cultures. But achievement in each of these three realms is appraised in terms of a collectivistic social ideal. The present rulers of Russia, knowing that their own vision of a more perfect society is neither understood nor shared by the great majority of the population, are seeking through every agency available to transmit that vision to the coming generation. From top to bottom the entire educational structure is dominated by the urgent need of rearing a valiant and militant generation imbued with the ideals of socialism and eager to defend the Revolution before the world. The school in Russia to-day is dedicated to the twofold task of guarding and maturing the new social order born in the years of war. It is for this reason that the present educational experiment merits the attention of the world. Never before in history has the school been pointed so completely and purposefully towards a great social objective.

The Control of Education.—If the foregoing purposes of education are to be achieved, the question of the control of education takes precedence over all other considerations. Absolute control must be secured by that self-conscious minority which is committed to the creation of the new order. Since this minority is the Communist Party and since the state is ruled by the Party, the desired result is secured by making education a function of the state. Practically all education in Russia to-day, therefore, is in the hands of the govern-

ment. In the field of special and technical education limited opportunities are extended to private enterprise; but, with a few unimportant exceptions, all institutions engaged in the promotion of general education are controlled by the state.

The reason for the differential treatment of general and special education is patent. The present government is primarily concerned in organizing those phases of education which shape social attitudes and ideals. Since the ordinary forms of technical education, such as instruction in typewriting, surveying, or foreign language, can have but little influence on the economic and political philosophy of the student, the state may safely entrust this type of education to other agencies. On the other hand, if diverse interests were permitted to teach history, civics, economics, morals, philosophy, or even the natural sciences, the state might find itself hampered in its efforts to create a pre-conceived order of society. The present government regards the school, as it regards the army, as an instrument for achieving predetermined ends. For this reason the entire field of general education, or social education, as it is very appropriately called in Russia, is monopolized by the state.

The fact that education in the Soviet Union is almost exclusively a state function does not mean that education is controlled by the central government. As a matter of fact, in the formulation of educational policy and in the administration of the program, complete autonomy is granted each of the six republics which comprise the Union. Except for the conferences of the several commissars of education, which are commonly held three times a year, each republic is apparently allowed to go its own way. However, an examination of policies, programs and institutions in four republics suggests the conclusion that this autonomy is largely illusory. Everywhere policies, programs and institutions are much the same. The explanation of this apparent contradiction is to be found in the influence of the Communist party. Since the more important questions are decided by this organization, and since the area of its dominance is coterminous with the boundaries of the Union, educational theories and practices are everywhere in fundamental harmony. Under present conditions it could not be otherwise.

With respect to the education of the national minorities, Russia has pursued a policy of unusual interest. The cultural composition

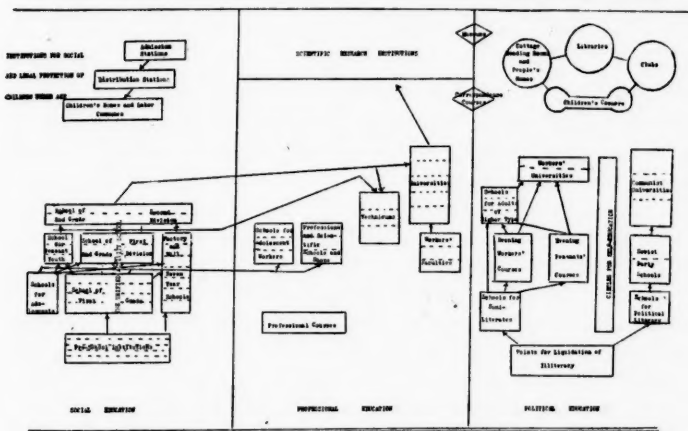
of the Union is extraordinarily complex. Within its borders and within the boundaries of each of the more important republics will be found many minority groups, each possessing its own language and institutions. And the complexities of the problem are increased because these various groups differ enormously in both the content and the level of their social attainments. There exists in Russia to-day every stage of culture from semi-nomadism to the highest type of western civilization. Thus, in addition to Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Germans, Jews, and Greeks there are Kurds, Tatars, Uzbeks, Bashkirs, Kirghiz, Turkomans, Kalmucks, Buriats, and Votyaks.

To each of these cultural minorities is given some measure of control over the education of its children. In this respect the present government has departed radically from the policy pursued under the Tsar. Each minority is allowed to organize its own schools under its own teachers and in its own language. Moreover, it is permitted to introduce into the program its own literature and art. How complicated a system of schools may become under such a policy is well illustrated by the little republic of Georgia. With a population but slightly in excess of two million inhabitants, schools are now organized in which instruction is given in the Georgian, Armenian, Turkish, Russian, Greek, Ossetin, German, Hebrew, Assyrian, Polish, and Kurdish languages. But this freedom is confined strictly to the field of cultural interests. In the realm of economics and politics rigid adherence to the generally accepted policies of the Union is required. Thus, while refusing to follow the precedent of the Empire in an effort to make Russians of all these diverse races and peoples, the rulers of Russia to-day are endeavoring earnestly to make good communists of them all. As a price for a certain cultural autonomy they hope to exact a steadfast loyalty to the Revolution. In this they would seem to be building more wisely than their predecessors.

The System of Education.—The revolutionary government, having made certain of the control of education at all vital points, has created a new system of education. The more important institutions comprising this system and their relationship to each other are graphically represented in Chart I. This chart describes the system of the R.S.F.S.R. only; but since the differences among the republics are slight and since this republic overshadows all the rest, containing almost three-fourths of the inhabitants of the Union, no grave bias

will be conveyed by confining the analysis to the institutions of the one republic. In any brief report a consideration of the differences from republic to republic would be of less value than an examination of other features of the system which such a consideration would force out of the picture.

SYSTEM OF POPULAR EDUCATION IN THE R. S. F. S. R.



According to the chart the educational system is composed of three major divisions. There are institutions of social, professional, and political education. While such an organization of schools may appear at first glance to differ radically from that to which we are accustomed in America, it resembles our system much more closely than it does the traditional systems of Europe. The familiar divisions of elementary, secondary, and higher are not immediately apparent. Moreover, the division of political education is set off by itself and sustains no organic connection with either of the other two divisions. But these differences are traceable, for the most part, to differences in the classification of institutions rather than to any fundamental disagreements in the general organization of education. A survey of the content of each of the three divisions will show this to be the case:

Social Education.—The basic division of education in Russia is that of social education. It embraces what in America is known as

general education. The task of the institutions of social education is to transmit to the rising generation that body of knowledges, habits, attitudes, and dispositions which is regarded as an essential part of the equipment of every citizen of the Republic.

On this foundation are erected the institutions to provide those forms of special education which the complexity and diversification of life make necessary or desirable. If the collateral institutions, such as schools for adolescents, schools for peasant youth, and factory and mill schools be disregarded, the system of social education will be seen to be composed of institutions of three levels. At the bottom of the system are various types of pre-school institutions which, though existing to-day only in very limited numbers, are designed to enroll children during the ages of three to seven years inclusive. Above these institutions is the unified activity school, as it is called, which is divided into primary and secondary divisions. The former, known as the school of first grade, is a four-year institution and normally enrolls children from eight to eleven years of age. The school of second grade then takes the pupil for another five-year period or to the age of seventeen years. This institution, however, is broken into a first division of three years and a second division of two years. A total of fourteen years of social education is thus provided, but as the chart indicates, for a particular individual this form of education may end on the completion of the school of first grade or on the completion of either division of the second grade school. The practice of cutting short the years of social education, according to the authorities, represents necessary but temporary concessions to the economic poverty of the country. They are agreed that the universal extension of the period of social education to seventeen years of age is highly desirable.

In its broader outlines the curriculum content of the schools of social education is not unlike that of our institutions of similar grade. In the pre-schools emphasis is placed on free activity, habit formation, supervised play, and health; in the school of first grade chief attention is devoted to the acquisition of command over the tools of learning; and in the school of second grade major consideration is given to science, history, mathematics and practical studies.

Throughout the course of social education both the natural and social sciences receive consistent emphasis. The great object of the

instruction in the natural sciences is to combat religious influence and to develop in the coming generation a definitely materialistic outlook. That the instruction in the schools is positively anti-religious perhaps could hardly be maintained. Yet in Russia to-day the notion is current among teachers that faith in either God or the church is a superstition whose survival is a product of ignorance.

The emphasis on history and the social studies is designed apparently to indoctrinate children with the ideals and attitudes of collectivism. In the teaching of history the class struggle is made prominent throughout and an extraordinary amount of time is devoted to the revolutionary movements of the 19th and 20th centuries. Moreover, the story of man's earthly adventures is made to culminate in the Bolshevik revolution of 1917. The heroes of the whole revolutionary movement are made the object of careful study and extreme veneration. And in its consideration of the relations of nations, the school seeks to substitute for the sentiments of nationalism and patriotism the sentiments of proletarian solidarity and working class loyalty throughout the world. Let any event or movement touching the welfare or fortunes of the workers show itself anywhere in either hemisphere, from the revolution in China to the execution of Sacco and Vanzetti in Massachusetts, and the attention of the children in the schools will be focussed upon it. The all controlling purpose of social education in Russia would, therefore, seem to be that of making the coming generation friendly to the Revolution, hostile to all counter-revolutionary forces, and eager to further the development of a socialistic and materialistic civilization.

Professional Education.—Based upon the institutions of social education and articulating with them at various points are the professional and higher schools. Professional education, it should be observed, embraces all forms of vocational and special training and is therefore much wider in scope in Russia than in America. Under the present organization an individual may proceed to the special schools from any one of three levels of social education, depending on the nature of the specialty toward which he is aiming. And corresponding with the three points of departure from the system of social education are three levels of institutions for professional education. To enter the schools, which prepare for the skilled occupations of industry, the student need only to have completed the school of first grade. Above these lower vocational schools, in point of

general preparation demanded, are the technicums. These schools may be entered from either the first or the second division of the second grade school. In them are trained the elementary teachers and many other workers who might be regarded as pursuing occupations at the semi-professional level. Of a higher grade than the technicums and articulating only with the second division of the secondary school or with the worker's faculty are the universities. In these institutions are trained the teachers of secondary schools, agronomists, physicians, surgeons, engineers, linguists, historians, mathematicians, and pure and applied scientists of all kinds. Above the universities and articulating with them are numerous and varied agencies devoted to scientific research. These institutions may be said to form the capstone of the educational system of Russia.

A consideration of the many points of interest in the system of professional education cannot be attempted here. There is, however, one question of such fundamental importance with respect to the extension of the opportunities of higher education that it merits brief examination. This is the question of admission to the universities. Immediately after the revolution all academic standards were abolished and the doors of the higher schools were opened to members of the working classes regardless of their qualifications. Circumstances gradually forced the abandonment of this extreme position. To-day entrance to the universities, even for graduates of the secondary school, is by examination only. Nevertheless, discrimination in favor of the working classes continues. Since the facilities for higher education are inadequate to meet the demand, selection must be made from those who pass the entrance examinations. In this selection the children of workers and peasants are favored. But the authorities have gone even further and adopted a positive policy with regard to the extension of higher educational opportunities to these classes. Every encouragement, both tangible and intangible in character, is given them to attend the universities. A special institution, the worker's faculty, has been created to prepare them to pass the entrance examinations, and maintenance allowances have been provided for those whose economic condition would otherwise keep them from the higher schools. According to the Commissariat of Public Education, approximately one-half of the students attending the universities to-day receive monthly stipends for maintenance. Clearly the present government wishes to make absolutely certain that the

technicians, intelligentsia, and leaders of the coming generation will be sympathetic towards the ideals of the revolution and the aspirations of the working classes. That this may involve some sacrifice of academic standards and a certain measure of injustice to individuals is fully recognized, but such sacrifice and injustice are regarded as the price which must be paid to insure the safety of the revolution.

Political Education.—The division of political education has no articulation with the divisions of social and professional education. It lies outside the bounds of the conventional system and is almost completely a product of the revolution. Its great object is that of promoting political education among adults; but since the promotion of political education is practically impossible in an illiterate population, and since the present regime inherited from the Empire an evil legacy of illiteracy, the first charge upon this division of the system is the teaching of reading and writing. The attack on this problem has been undertaken on a large scale and through the instrumentality of many new institutions created for the purpose. Hand in hand with the war on illiteracy has gone the program of political education which has sought to alter the political ideas and philosophies of the entire adult population.

The inclusion of the division of political education within the formal scheme of education constitutes one of the most interesting features of the new program in Russia. In the effort on the part of the government to control and utilize the various social agencies which have educational possibilities nothing has been overlooked, nothing has been left to chance. In its endeavor to reach the population all available channels have been used. The long list of institutions thus brought under the supervision of the Commissariat of Education reveals the thoroughness with which the job has been done. There are the museums, libraries, cottage reading rooms, people's homes, clubs, correspondence courses, and the numerous schools for adults of a more formal type. And to this list which is taken from the chart might be added many other institutions, some of which, such as the theatre, the cinema and the red army, are as important as those included. In its scope the conception of education which prevails in Russia exceeds that found in any other great country. For this condition the development of the division of political education is largely responsible.

The Administrative Organization.—For the administration of this vast network of educational institutions a correspondingly comprehensive administrative organization has been set up. In harmony with the principles of republic autonomy in the field of education the Union as a whole possesses no organization for the administration of education. In this respect the Soviet Union is following a policy not unlike that pursued by the United States. In our country the administration of education is left, for the most part, to the several states. This apparent similarity, however, should not blind us to the fact that whereas the United States, with a population of 120,000,000, is divided into forty-eight states and the District of Columbia, the U. S. S. R., with a population of 145,000,000 embraces but six republics and one of them, the R. S. F. S. R., contains approximately seventy per cent of the total population of the Union.

Within the R. S. F. S. R. the administrative organization assumes an elaborate form. At its center is the People's Commissariat of Education with offices in Moscow. Radiating from this center are numerous lines of influence which reach into the provinces, the districts, the volosts, and finally the peasant villages. On the whole, the system may be regarded as a highly centralized one. However, each of these local political units, except the village, maintains some organic connection with the institutions of public education and in an informal way even the village may play a part in the management of the primary schools. For the most part policies and programs are formulated by the central authorities and the adaptation of these policies and programs to local conditions is the responsibility of the local officials. An examination of the Commissariat of Education will reveal the more significant features of the administrative organization.

The nucleus of the People's Commissariat of Education, or Narkompros, the abbreviated form commonly employed in Russia, is the Collegium. This body, which is a sort of educational cabinet, is composed of eight members. Presiding over the Collegium, and the official head of public education in the R. S. F. S. R., is the People's Commissar of Education. The members of the Collegium derive their powers directly from the government and are responsible to the government. The People's Commissar is appointed by the Central Executive Committee and the other seven members by the Soviet of People's Commissars. Although a member may hold some

other position in the Commissariat of Education at the time he is serving in the Collegium, no member serves *ex officio*. The function of the Collegium is that of any central agency in an administrative organization. It deals with the larger problems, formulates the more general policies, and coördinates the work of the various departments and bureaus. Its conclusions, however, are not final. The court of last resort in such matters, to which all decisions must be submitted for approval, is the Soviet of People's Commissars. The latter may refuse to confirm the action of the Collegium, but in actual practice confirmation is the normal procedure.

Below the Collegium the Commissariat of Education is organized into eight great departments. For the most part these departments are coördinate in authority and function, although their importance must vary with the importance of the work performed. In their organization they usually follow the pattern of Narkompros. In general charge of a department is a collegium with a president at its head appointed by the Soviet of People's Commissars and with a number of other members appointed by the Collegium of Narkompros. In addition to these eight departments the Commissariat of Education embraces another institution or agency of great significance—the State Publishing House. A brief description of the function of each of the departments will reveal the breadth of the educational program in Russia.

1. *The Department of Literature and Publishing.*—This department discharges a broadly social as well as a crucial educational responsibility. Its function is to plan, control and censor all publishing within the Republic. Its influence therefore is felt not only in the schools but in every walk of life. No field of interest escapes its supervision. In every realm it passes judgment on both the number and content of publications. But its authority does not stop here. It is made responsible for the character of theatrical productions and is empowered to censor both the cinema and the legitimate stage. As one contemplates such a concentration of power in the hands of a single agency, one can only hope that those to whom the power is given will have sufficient wisdom to use it aright.

2. *The Council for the Education of National Minorities.*—The Russian Republic is a land of diverse races and cultures. This fact greatly complicates the task of formal education and makes neces-

sary extensive modifications and adaptations of general policies and programs to the needs and conditions of numerous national minorities. No single formulation of procedure could possibly meet such dissimilar situations as the cultural diversity creates. To make the necessary adjustments and concessions is the task of this department of the Commissariat of Education. And to insure a sympathetic attitude on the side of the department toward the task, its personnel is made to represent these minorities. The Collegium of the Council to-day is composed altogether of persons chosen by the minorities.

3. *The Department of Science, Art, and Museum Institutions.* The functions of this department are rather clearly indicated by its title. An examination of the present system of education in Russia showed it to include a great number of scientific institutions, art galleries, and museums. Through this department the administration of all of these institutions is brought under the jurisdiction of the Commissariat of Education and their activities are coördinated with the work of other educational agencies. This department also has control over the exportation of objects of art to foreign countries.

4. *Department of Organization and Administration.*—In its organization this department is somewhat different from the other departments. It possesses no collegium but the coördinating and integrating functions are discharged by a central staff consisting of a president, an assistant, and two inspectors. The major responsibility of the department is that of perfecting the administrative organization of the system of public education. Subsidiary functions performed include the gathering of statistics and information regarding education, the calculation of the social need in the Republic for workers requiring different types of special training, and the financing of all educational institutions supported out of the state budget.

5. *The State Council of Education.*—This department is perhaps the most important of the eight departments of Narkompros. It carries the heavy responsibility of working into a single unified program the diverse plans and suggestions emanating from the other departments. It is a sort of educational clearing house for ideas and programs. It is also responsible for the appointment of all professors and instructors in the higher institutions. For the performance of these important functions it has an organization much

like that of the other departments except that it is a bit more complicated and possesses a somewhat larger staff.

6. *The Department of Social Education.*—The major function of this department, as the title suggests, is the development and supervision of the institutions of social education. It shapes programs, develops textbooks, and formulates methods of instruction for these institutions. Under its general supervision fall the pre-school institutions, the schools of first grade, and the schools of second grade, as well as various other forms of educational enterprise which are commonly associated with these institutions. The latter would include Pioneer exercises, local programs, and certain outside activities of a cultural nature.

7. *The Department of Professional Education.*—Under the jurisdiction of this department are placed all forms of vocational, professional, and higher education except those types which are classified under adult education. It is immediately responsible for the curricula and the methods employed in workers' schools, technicums, workers faculties, polytechnics, and universities.

8. *The Department of Political Education.*—This department has general charge of the division of political or adult education. It bears the major responsibility for the liquidation of illiteracy and for the political education of workers. It organizes correspondence courses and prepares bibliographies; it supervises libraries and cottage reading rooms; it is responsible for the organization of young people's clubs, it establishes points for the liquidation of illiteracy and outlines courses for self-education; and it develops curricula and methods for the schools for political literacy. This department is the most powerful arm of the government in its efforts to reach the adult population in city and village.

The foregoing analysis of the People's Commissariat of Education invites one general comment—a comment which was also suggested by an examination of the system of education. Perhaps the most striking feature of the Soviet educational program is its breadth and comprehensiveness. Many interests and institutions which in other countries customarily fall outside the field of educational administration have been brought within the province of the Commissariat of Education. Of particular interest in this connection are

the Department of Literature and Publishing, the Council for the Education of National Minorities, the Department of Science, Art and Museum Institutions, and the Department of Political Education. Practically all the educational agencies of society, except the home and the church, have been coördinated and made to work toward the same end. Moreover, no age or social group is overlooked; all are embraced in this gigantic program for remoulding the very character of a people.

What the future will bring in the development of educational institutions in Soviet Russia is in the lap of the gods. He would be a rash man indeed who to-day would mark out the lines of change which will unfold themselves there in the coming years. So vast and varied is the geography, so complex is the cultural pattern, so fluid is the social life, so unknown is the Russian nature, and so many are the variables in the situation that the most astute observer must refrain from prophecy. Whatever may be said therefore regarding the future of education in the Soviet Union must be highly conditional. During the ten years since the Revolution much has been achieved. To-day the educational system seems to be developing rapidly and comprehensive plans for further growth have been formulated. However, it must be confessed that the program which the present government has outlined is far from fulfilment, that the material basis of education is very inadequate, and that large developments must wait upon the successful organization of the economic life. Yet, if the Russian people are successful in the solution of their economic problems, if the support of education is provided on a scale as generous as the program adopted, if the country is blessed with peace for half a generation, and if the present government remains in power, the current educational experiment should prove to be one of the greatest educational experiments of history.

The Problems of Education in India were presented by Rajarem V. Gogate of Indore City, India.

PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

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I consider it a happy privilege indeed to be asked to speak on behalf of my motherland, India. I also wish to express my gratitude to those who have shown this breadth of vision and sympathy of interest in inviting India to participate in this opening session of the national convention of the Principals of American Secondary Schools.

India is a country which occupies a space of about two million square miles with a population comprising one-fifth of the human race. India held a venerable position among the countries that laid the foundation of human civilization in the early days of recorded history, and she had made amazing progress in industry, commerce, science, politics, art, and philosophy. An unbiased evaluation of the culture and history of India will yield a record worthy of any people.

One-sided Picture.—Unfortunately, however, due to certain unrestrained, self-seeking, arrogantly self-righteous forces that have been let loose since the industrial advancement of Western peoples and that have been running amuck, particularly since the institution of nation worship, and flag symbolism among the Occidentals, many uncritical, unreliable and totally unsympathetic studies have been made public. According to these studies India is described as a land of teeming population of diverse castes and creeds, a country of contending religions and races where life is still uncertain because of the freedom enjoyed by the snakes and tigers, and where the elephants roam at large. Add to these other beliefs that the entire people of India are given to a sort of religious pessimism, that fantastic doctrines of life sway the passions of men, that ignorance and superstition are the order of the day, that every Hindu is a hand-reader, and that the dear mothers of India cheerfully throw their babies into the Ganges so that the "holy" crocodiles may not miss their usual breakfast.

Mischief of Vested Interests.—Those who either had little or no interest in the peoples of India beyond proselytizing them and those who looked upon the Orient as a free gaming ground for the economic gamblers of the West through their talks and writings prided themselves in their triumphs in exploiting these peace loving peoples of the Orient. Records of Western missions will reveal that, until very recently, their chief criterion for judging the work done by them among the Asiatic peoples was in terms of numerical conversions of the natives to any one of the 57 varieties of the Christian faith.

Christianity under the growing impact of industrialization of the Western nations was becoming a worn out fabric of creeds, dogmas and rituals unable to clothe the ever increasing spiritual nakedness of its professed followers. Its attention, therefore, was naturally diverted from home to distant lands from where its missionaries could bring such tales of woe, misery, and ignorance, and thus cause the spiritually gullible men and women of their respective lands to open their purses wide to save the souls of the so-called "heathen."

Due to such abnormal approaches to the study of distant countries a serious damage has been done to the minds of the Western peoples, and of late both the Occidentals and Orientals are realizing the gravity of the situation which, if not carefully attended to, is calculated to lead to the building of unwholesome, indecent, and inhuman attitudes toward the life, ideals, and aspirations of one another. This, of course, will be mutually disastrous.

India is not what the Western Indologists, save a few, would have you imagine. As a son of India who has had years of contact with the West and who is keenly awake to the true greatness of Occidental civilization, and who owes a debt of gratitude to the institutions of higher learning of this great republic for his higher training and education I wish to present to you, this afternoon, the case of modern India, with special reference to her educational problems.

New Era in Education of India.—We stand to-day, in my opinion, at the threshold of a new era in the history of Indian education. The British system of education has had its hey-day, but to-day it stands condemned on all sides because of the results it has produced, and particularly because of the changed outlook on life on the part of Young India.

For some seventy years Britain has ruled India's educational destiny, and as at home she naturally was able to give India a type of education that is neither practical nor efficient. British education in India may be characterized, without fear of contradiction, as "a system of education offering training in the so-called liberal arts and sciences for the benefit of the 'classes' of the Indian population." All the courses in the curricula were theoretical whether pertaining to the arts or sciences. The medium of instruction was English which successfully contributed to retard more than to accelerate the advancement of education among the people of India. Those who were blessed with a rich inheritance of *mind and money* were able to survive through the educational nurseries of India, going beyond the secondary school and on through the colleges and universities. These nurseries, however, have been mostly replete with records of shocking educational mortality from the very early stages of the primary grades and especially at the matriculation examinations which come at the end of the secondary-school program. Of course the apologists of British education have not been slow in offering excuses and inventing reasons for the high educational mortality by referring to India's social and economic problems. We Indians, however, and those few Americans who have of late returned from India, after having made a truthful study of the real difficulties in the way of education in India, feel that there are three chief factors which are responsible for the slackness and retardation of education in India.

Causes of Educational Retardation.—I. First, the medium of instruction being a foreign tongue, it creates all those difficulties and attitudes of indifference which your own boys and girls would not endure if they were made to study through German or Japanese while their own language at home and in their community remained English.

II. Secondly, Indian education as exported from England is merely cultural in its old-fashioned sense. It does not train character as you Americans say. It does not prepare for the battle of life. It fails to awaken potentialities of the child which will make him creative in his own way. Above all it is non-vocational, and as such useless for the many who in all countries, and especially in a country of India's magnitude, must work and produce in order to make a decent living.

III. Thirdly, it is not free and compulsory even in its primary stages. I know of no nation that has made education to serve as an in-

strument for evolving and sustaining democratic ways of living where primary education is not compulsory. India cannot be an exception. Eighty-two per cent of India's population lives in villages and depends on one or another phase of agricultural activity for its sustenance. A farmer in India is not anxious to send his child to school to get instruction in the three R's and to forego the economic returns of his services at home and on the farm any more than is an American farmer in California. You know what difficulties attendance officers in the rural districts of the United States face in keeping the children in the schools. In spite of the compulsory education laws all through the United States this country has still far to go to be free from illiteracy. Had it not been for the vocational, part-time and continuation schools provided for the children of the masses of this republic, you would face the same situation as most European countries do, and that situation is highly accentuated in India by the fact that India is not yet industrialized.

Problems of Education in India.—I. *So the first and foremost of our educational problems in India is that of organizing mass education as distinguished from class education of to-day.* This education for the masses must provide for the minimum essentials of learning which, in my opinion, should consist of the three R's plus training in some vocation which will fit the child to engage in a profitable and productive pursuit. Rural reconstruction is our pressing need. Besides giving our prospective farmers and farm laborers the essential minimum, as mentioned above, it is necessary that technological and vocational schools must be brought into existence to teach scientific methods of improving agriculture and its attendant industries. These technical schools will prepare workers who can lead and initiate movements for improving means of public utilities. Material comfort and convenience is badly wanting, and its possession will aid greatly to better the outlook on life on the part of our potential citizens.

Industrialization.—Whether one likes it or not the impact of Western industrialization is being seriously felt on our life in India. Bombay and Calcutta are no longer representative of the Orient but they present all those numerous problems that modern capitalistic industries create. Our farmers do not possess any special gift of farsightedness, not possessed by the farmers of the West. They are easily attracted to the centers of industry because of the immediate rise in their monetary earning capacities. They fail to see the in-

evitable price they and their children must pay, in the course of time, in point of health, dissipation, and drink. When a man works on the farm, he sings and practises human hospitality toward all, but when he gets under the influence of exploitative factory life, he spits and swears. His love for the family plays out, and he is gradually on the path of becoming a soulless machine. This does not mean that we in India object to developing industries and thus to improve our productivity. Our natural resources are enormous, and though greatly exploited by the Western capitalists for over a century, everyone who knows India will concede that she still holds enormous subsoil resources which are as yet untapped. Scientific methods, moreover, will help to increase the production of our raw materials, and if a system of cottage industries is built up, it will save our population from the evils of highly centralized and mechanized factory system as at present in vogue, and at the same time improve the economic and consequently the social life of our masses.

Hence the importance of rural reconstruction and of facing the problems of rural economy by providing that type of educational facilities which can solve the problems without calling for unavailable monetary aid and other facilities.

Whose Responsibility?—Since India is a country of villages and the uttermost poverty of her masses does not enable them to finance the education of their children, the task will have to be shouldered by the Government of India. Instead of providing small one room schools for every village, in most cases the plan of consolidated schools as operated in the rural regions of the United States would seem highly advisable. This plan will enable the provision for fewer schools with better equipment and properly trained teachers. Indian children can walk the same distance to their schools that American boys and girls in rural districts do, and it will not be difficult under capable and loyal management to establish transportation facilities according to the nature of the place in question.

Eight to ten years of educational career including the primary and vocational schooling should quite suffice for the present to revolutionize the outlook as well as the understanding of the immediate prospects of a village boy or girl.

The program of rural reconstruction, of course, will call for the introduction of modern methods of organizing economic and social

life in villages such as the system of coöperative societies, community hygiene, fostering of associated industries, such as poultry, farming, dairies, horticultural improvements, etc.

A solution to this problem of mass education presupposes the presence of leaders who will be able to initiate and conduct the various agencies that are necessary for bringing about rural reconstruction. These rural leaders will have to come from the institutions at present financed and run for the children of the upper and middle class city population. Unless the education given to these sons and daughters of city dwellers is reformed and redirected, it is hopeless to expect the products of our present schools and colleges efficiently to shoulder the responsibilities of improving the lot of their rural brethren.

Reform of Present "Class Education."—II. Hence the second problem that calls our attention is in regard to the reformation of the education that is being given to-day in our schools and colleges. Instead of turning out clerks for government jobs or those who cannot do anything with their acquired knowledge except teach it to others, we must face the problem differently. Education should be so organized that it will be a paying concern to those who receive it. It should, as you Americans put it, prepare a product that will not be difficult to sell. I do not suggest that our present education should be completely thrown overboard. We must teach subjects that are conducive to the preparation of scholars, scientists, politicians, and so on, but our educational institutions, particularly our middle schools and high schools, must not be allowed to cater so much to the requirements of our colleges and universities. Courses in practical arts, general science, industrial chemistry, food chemistry, designing, need to be introduced to shift students' interests in wider field of choice than is possible at present. The curriculum instead of being ridden by the needs of the higher institutions should be worked out in terms of the needs of the society that we wish to create and in which the child is to grow and to serve. If India's masses are to be lifted up from their present condition of illiteracy and poverty, her classes must, in the general interest of the nation as a whole, give up some of the false values of rank and prospects and agree to train their children for work in *rural leadership*.

If a ten year experiment is made to turn out from our high schools boys and girls trained in studies that will enable them to work for the

mass education movement, it will, besides doing good to the rural population, help to emancipate the city children from the clutches of narrow, circumscribed, interests and avenues of activity that have become more or less traditional to-day. When such a movement is well under way our masses will become intelligent enough to understand our national aspirations and to appreciate the sacrifices of our leaders for the cause of India's political, economic, and social regeneration. It is the middle class and the intelligentsia in every country that is responsible for the general staggering apathy of the masses toward national ideals of prosperity and progress.

III. *Our third important problem is that of medical education. Our colleges and universities should become transformed into institutions for the training of mid-wives, pharmacists, and doctors.* India will hold her own much better when she will have more bachelors of medicine and fewer bachelors of arts and science. I include in my criticism of the degree holders even the students of science because they are no better able to "do" things in their lines than are the students of arts. Our higher education is "all theory." A few of our great universities have gone to another extreme; they have instituted highly specialized practical courses which result in the production of the research laboratory type of scholarship. These high grade research scholars may discover things and thus earn a reputation in the world of science, bringing a proud feeling of self-approbation to our land; but their discoveries and researches are calculated to be helpful only to the Occidental scientists and will be of little avail to India until Indian conditions in general are so improved as to make these discoveries applicable to the problems of our people. Individuals and private institutions may indulge in these high grade researches, but we cannot complacently view our state-supported universities spending our national funds on such endeavors when these are more urgently needed for other pressing and more important "national projects" of education.

Here again the government must take the lead. Until the Indian Government becomes truly democratic and India has lived a steady existence for a few decades at least, as a democracy, it passes one's imagination to understand the logic of the ruling power in expecting "local-initiative" on the part of the public. You had and you still have to force education upon your citizens by law and until your commercial and industrial organizations came forward, your states

had given freely for the practical education of your potential citizens. Your states, even to this day, when as a democracy you have lived over a century, spend enormous sums of money to encourage vocational education and your federal government has been largely responsible for keeping up this policy on the part of your states. All this I say because one often hears apologists of the government of India accusing the public of that country of lack of initiative, and argue that by this policy of the government, viz., "wait till they wake up and demand," India will be benefited. This to me is sheer sophistry and wrong reading of the history of education.

Need of Social Hygiene.—India has made an enormous advance in regard to what is called "personal hygiene" but she has utterly neglected the problem of social hygiene. The first kind of hygiene, viz., personal hygiene, however, has been in vogue in the upper castes of the Hindu society. Now that national consciousness has been awakened and all solutions are to be worked out from the national standpoint, greater attention will have to be paid to the study of the numerous problems of social hygiene. In order that the future of our national stock be ensured a general provision for a good system of health correction for our people will be necessary.

Preservation of Indigenous Culture.—IV. *Our fourth problem is concerned with the preservation of the indigenous arts, literature, and philosophy.* In short our Indian culture which is a combined product of the Hindu and the Moslem contributions, is in danger of being degenerated due to the unwholesome competition of the European culture which has been imposed upon our children in schools and colleges for the past hundred years. No people can afford to lose the good things in their social and national heritage.

1. *Arts.*—Long before Europeans emerged out of barbarism and learned to clothe their physical nakedness we in the Orient had developed arts and crafts to a very high level. The silk of China and the muslin of India were the marvels in the history of textile products. Without the use of machinery Indian artists had developed the art of manufacturing all kinds of cotton, silk and wool goods, metal works, ivory products, sculpture, and architecture. Our Kashmir shawls, hammered brass, silver, and gold, engraved products, our beautiful temples with their images and mosques and mausoleums like the famous Tajmahal are to this day unsurpassed by any western

creation. These and numerous other arts of India have been carried on from father to son in the different vocational castes of that country but owing to severe competition of the machine made goods and the general poverty of the people of India, these indigenous arts and industries are in a very precarious state. The famous arts of India will die out if not attended to and it will be a great loss to the world.

The arts are at present in the hands of poor, ignorant artisans whose ranks are becoming thinner and thinner every day. Our schools therefore must take up these arts and preserve them by making them a part of the program for vocational and industrial education. This particular field has great potentialities for international commerce because under normal and carefully managed trade relations India's art goods and curios can successfully compete in the western markets and help to improve the artistic tastes and appreciations of the Occidental peoples.

2. *Indian Literature.*—Indian literature demands its rightful place in the curriculum of our schools and colleges. India has never ceased to produce, especially in the field of literature in spite of lack of state recognition or support. Dr. Tagore is one of many Indian creative writers and poets. He translated his works into English and even what he gave to the West in translation proved worthy of admiration and respect. He was consequently made a Nobel-prize man for literature. Of late our universities are introducing the literary contributions of our writers in the various languages of India for the study of our advanced students. This needs to be done on a larger scale and our high school and primary school pupils should be given to read and study books written by Indian writers. There will not be a lack of appropriate material for use in the lower grades of our schools if sufficient encouragement is forthcoming. Of course such a policy will prove a bit detrimental to the trade of western publishers and writers whose books are at present used in the most of our schools and colleges.

3. *Indian Philosophy.*—The most astounding and almost incredible fact concerning higher education in India is that India's own philosophy is not taught even up to the B.A. degree. Universities like Oxford and Cambridge, or those of Germany such as Leipzig, Heidelberg, etc., and even your beloved Harvard consider Indian philosophy rich enough for a Ph.D. candidate and permit doctorate dissertations on the profound speculations in the Upanishads. Our Indian scholars,

those who have attained scholarship through British colleges and universities have to go out of India to England, United States, or Germany to further their critical studies in Indology because there is no provision, whatsoever, in Indian universities for such studies. You may judge for yourself what it means for an Indian boy to study Sanskrit language and literature, the heritage that his forefathers have left him, through the medium of English. I have studied Sanskrit but I cannot give one rule in grammar of that language except in English. All the beautiful and profound writings of our master poets like Kālidās, Bhavabhūti, are taught us through English. Nothing more ridiculous and more vicious could be found in the educational system of any country. As I have already made clear I am not very enthusiastic over the studies in liberal arts at the present juncture in our program for nation building. I prefer the introduction of scientific education instead, in practical arts, vocations, and professions. But I cannot see how one could resist protesting while discussing the place of the so-called cultural studies in the curriculum of our schools and colleges if he sees such glaring fallacies and uneducational practices undoubtedly aimed at throwing into neglect and thus destroying the heritage of a civilized people. Indian literature, philosophy, and languages should be given their rightful place side by side with the contributions of Europe in those fields and not treated with criminal neglect as hitherto.

V. *Our fifth problem is that of the medium of instruction in Indian schools.* At present the instruction for the first four years of the primary education is carried on through the mother tongue of the child. Then in the middle schools or anglo-vernacular schools as they are often called, the study of English is introduced and it is compulsory although the rest of the studies are more or less carried on through the medium of the vernacular. This period lasts from two to three years. By this time a student comes to acquire, though not without a good deal of heartache and other troubles, due to the most "scientific" nature of the English language with which all of you are more or less familiar, a good working knowledge of English. Thereafter, for the coming six years of high school all his studies are carried on through the medium of English. As said elsewhere a student studies his lessons even in Sanskrit or Arabic or Persian through books which give grammatical rules and exercises for composition work in English.

I must admit, however, in fairness to the study of English which is carried on with typical English strictness, and as such which does lead, in the case of those who successfully go through our colleges and universities to an admirable mastery of the King's English. Knowledge of English on the part of most of our educated men and women has also helped substantially in the development of inter-provincial exchange of ideas and the building up of a national consciousness. Our Indian National Congress, for instance, which is our chief representative organization in politics has since its very inception carried on its activities and annual convention work for the past 42 years through the medium of English. As every province in India is like every nation in Europe, we have so many different languages, and as we are forced by the logic of our political predicament to give up the idea of living as the little European countries do, each separate by itself, we must make the best of our adventitious need and accept a federated nationhood as our ideal. The English language no doubt has helped much in the understanding and realization of this ideal on the part of our educated men and women.

However, India cannot continue with English as the *lingua franca* of India for all time, as she cannot do what is expected of the South African or Philippino peoples by their English speaking masters, because in contrast with the above mentioned peoples, India has in her provincial languages a rich and remarkable literature, and most of these provincial languages have attained a high degree of development the same as the European languages. As such it is difficult and certainly not probable that India would ever think of giving up her languages and agree to become an *English speaking* land.

There is, moreover, no such need either, when one sees the situation more sympathetically and with deeper appreciation of the claims of the Indian languages.

Tri-Lingual Plan.—Most nationalists and nationally minded educators of India seem to agree that a tri-lingual plan will suit our needs and prove satisfactory both from the provincial, national and international points of view. This tri-lingual plan is as follows:

1. All primary instruction should be given through the mother tongue of the child for the first two years of his school work.
2. Then the study of Hindūsthānee should be introduced as a compulsory second language. This bi-lingual plan should continue until

the end of the middle school period, i.e., for four or five years. As in other countries a large majority of our students will discontinue their school attendance around this stage in their education, and by this plan will have not only acquired the knowledge of the elementary subjects, but also a working knowledge of Hindusthanee which even to-day is and we wish to make it more universally so, the *Lingua-Indica*. The large majority of Indians speak Hindusthanee in one form or another. It is the commercial language of the people. It is also the street language in the majority of the provinces. This insistence upon making Hindusthanee more universally known than it is at present, is due to the sad realization of the fact, that in spite of the compulsory study of English for over 75 years, the gulf between the linguistic intercourse among the masses of people has remained shockingly wide. It is not enough to have only the educated classes understand one another. A real sense of unity and fraternity cannot be invoked until our masses can communicate one with another.

3. It is not proposed that the study of English should be neglected. It should be made optional in the middle school curriculum and should be strongly recommended for those who intend going to the high school. This policy will save the boys and girls who are not likely to continue after completing their elementary grades, from wasting time on getting a smattering knowledge of English which is naturally and inevitably lost, within a year or so. At the same time it will give them a working knowledge of Hindusthanee which they, in most cases, will need in their inter-provincial intercourse and which they will not have to pick up on the side as it is done to-day.

English should be the compulsory second language all through our secondary education. I am one of those Indians who are not opposed to English on any sentimental grounds. We must and do recognize the cultural as well as commercial value of the English language. India, and for that matter any other country, cannot afford to lose the advantages that must accrue from the study of a language so rich in literature and so full of up-to-date information on science, art, and philosophy. Moreover our present relationship, even though it is only political in nature, with the British people, is sure to develop into other channels. With the gradual but unmistakable change in India's political and economic fortunes that is quite obvious to those who can see, my people will be drawn commercially and industrially, into the wide markets of the world and since the emergence of the

United States as the greatest financial power on earth, the English language is already coming to be recognized as the universal lingo in the business world.

In fact, in making English a compulsory second language in the curriculum of India, we have in mind the intention of perpetuating our relations with the western nations, but as in Japan and Turkey, by this policy we hope to succeed, on the one hand, in building up a universal language for India out of one of India's own largely spoken dialects, and on the other hand to open doors for the study of foreign languages, particularly those of European origin. English will be our first preference, but according to the needs of a student, he may be encouraged to study German or French as well if those languages are better fitted for the field of his special interest. In short, in due time, and it may take a few generations possibly, one European foreign language, according to this plan, will be required as a compulsory second language of all Indians going in for higher education. This appears to me a natural as well as a progressive solution to the most knotty and confounding problem of the medium instruction.

VI. Our sixth and the last one of the most important problems in reorganization and modernization of India's education that I propose to discuss with you concerns the need of civic education.

A great deal has been said and written on the question of civic education in this country. Its place and significance in the training of the young is well known to you. It is the very life of that particular aim which all coherent and comprehensive plans of education set before themselves to accomplish, viz., turning out efficient citizens of the nation. Education may be and is defined in various ways, but to me its greatest significance lies in the fact that it is an instrument for building community life that is ever widening and deepening human understanding, wordly relations and spiritual values of life. So conceived then, it behooves us in India, as elsewhere, to introduce civic education both in our primary and secondary schools. It is painfully absent to-day from our curriculum. The situation and the mischief wrought by it must be remedied without delay. No government or public leaders can be trusted in their professions and promises with regard to their efforts to build a nationhood for India in the modern sense of that term, unless and until their plans and schemes for education provide for the training in citizenship.

In conclusion, ladies and gentlemen, kindly permit me to bring to your attention more specifically and emphatically some of the dangers and difficulties that beset us in our present efforts for cultivating in our people a better understanding of modern civilization.

In our efforts to solve our problems we are like any other people, beset with numerous difficulties, the financial difficulty being of the first magnitude. India, moreover, since the close of the World War has attained a peculiar status in the world of politics. She was admitted to the membership of the League of Nations as an equal partner in the British Empire. This position has, as yet, brought us little practical advantage as a people, although our financial responsibilities have been increased. India pays for the upkeep of the League of Nations more than Japan does. It is fair, however, to say that in spite of all political and financial handicaps, the reformed constitution of India has put the portfolio of education in the hands of the Indians, and to-day although without any real control over the budget, Indian ministers are in charge of India's education. This is of great significance, especially in view of our political dependence upon England. But of late a new and highly sinister form of propaganda has been set afoot to make out that Indians are unfit for political freedom.

In 1929, if all goes well, India is supposed to get the dominion status like that of Australia in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Hence those opposed to India's political emancipation have already started to fabricate all sorts of myths, the same as was done during 1916-17 to villify Germany. These propagandists hope to make you, in the Occident, believe that we in India are uncivilized, that our social life is barbarous, that we are nothing better than the savages in Africa or in the South Sea Islands.

India's physical life needs to be attended to as much as the physical life of the peoples elsewhere. Her infant mortality, her backwardness in community hygiene, recurrence of epidemics that carry away a toll of lives that is shocking, are all problems that cannot be explained away. Western tourists have often done us great harm by their injudicious study of these problems and particularly by their criminal interpretations of the causes of these problems. What is necessary is human and scientific understanding, for that alone will move one to give a helping hand or encourage the Indians to seek advice and accept help from all who can give it. Attempts of the

foreigners to abuse our courtesy and hospitality by turning the studies of our social conditions into novels of morbid attraction and vicious propaganda, in order to spread inhuman and untrue scandals to defeat our efforts for national development and international service will foster ill-will, and an attitude of retaliation will be generated in the minds of our young men and women who have seen and known the West at closer range. Will not this inevitably result in the spreading of hatred and contempt between peoples and peoples?

Dangers of Propaganda.—No Indian will deny that our social institutions need reforming in terms of modern life, but when our statements describing our social evils become mutilated and criminally falsified in the hands of a foreigner, then no matter whether the writer be a lady or an American, or even a direct descendant of those who came on the *Mayflower*, it will be difficult for us, as human beings, to pass her on unheeded. Miss Mayo is the American woman I have particularly in mind at this juncture. She is an American citizen and claims direct lineage from one of the *Mayflower* emigrants. She has abused the courtesy and hospitality of our people and of the leaders in India's public life, and has at present unfortunately busied herself is spreading the venom of her morbid gospel among the American people. India is undefended, and in the face of the cheap, sensational journalism of this land, she must go undefended; but I plead in the name of my motherland and appeal to your sense of honor as educators of this great republic to raise your voice and to let India and the Orient know before it becomes too late, that you are friends of all peoples who are struggling for freedom and progress, that you are our well-wishers, and that you are not willing to be represented by international scandalmongers of Miss Mayo's type. You, as a people, are living in glass houses, most of humanity is doing so. Shall the American practical genius espouse the leadership of the world in launching a campaign to eradicate the evils from which mankind is suffering, or will it wantonly indulge in mudslinging sport, setting a very deplorable and dangerous standard for the writing of travel literature and international social studies?

Missionaries have already realized the gravity of their misguided policy of the past. Their work is becoming more of service through education and medical help.

India has become keenly aware, more than ever, of her matter of fact situation and she realizes that her communal differences must go,

that her provincial consciousness must widen into a national view if she wishes to get her place in the sisterhood of nations.

It is time that the Occidentals, whether of Europe or of America, whether Nordics, imperialists, or democrats come to understand that China and India are not South Africa or the South Sea Islands where they may send clothes and Bibles to cover the physical nakedness or spiritual bankruptcy of the natives. We still produce enough in both fields under normal conditions to meet our wants, and even more, to offer to others elsewhere. It is no impudence when Indians warn the Americans to rise above their illiteracy and become educated by understanding human history critically and correctly. It is not out of rancor that India deplores the colossal superficiality and unthinking naïve attitude of the American people concerning the culture and civilization of India.

Our problems are not easy; we hope to solve them as fast and as best as we can. Give us a helping hand, your moral support at any rate. If not, at least do not impede our efforts by thoughtless criticisms or mischievous interpretations of our affairs. That will do you no good, but it may do us harm.

I thank you for your kind attention and in the name of the ancient people, whom it is my proud privilege to represent at this gathering, I bring you a message of good will and fellowship that brotherhood may prevail.

Principal William E. Wing of Deering High School, Portland, Maine, made a brief report of the World Federation of Education Associations at Toronto, Canada in August, 1927.

REPORT OF DELEGATES AT TORONTO MEETING OF
WORLD'S FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL
ASSOCIATIONS, AUGUST, 1927

WILLIAM E. WING,

PRINCIPAL OF DEERING HIGH SCHOOL, PORTLAND, MAINE

The fact that two million teachers are organizing for the purpose of eliminating intolerance and hatred among the nations of the world through the means of a better mutual understanding of each other,

and each other's problems is in itself most impressive and carries an appeal to the patriotism of all peoples who enjoy peace rather than war.

There was so much of interest at Toronto which really developed from the work of certain standing committees which were appointed at a previous meeting that it seemed desirable to give a brief history of the W. F. E. A. in order to understand the sequence of events, and especially to note what progress has been made by these standing committees.

At the close of the World War, there was a universal desire to find some common ground upon which the nations could get together. The opinion was universal that some way must be found to drive out racial hatreds from the hearts of men and substitute the spirit of friendliness, good will, and justice. The nations could not come together on political grounds, on economic grounds, or on religious grounds. Where, therefore, could there be found a common ground upon which the nations, regardless of the form of their religion, or their economic or political conditions, might get together?

The National Education Association of the United States believed that since education deals with truth, and that truth is universal, knowing no national boundaries; since teaching is conscious guidance, and the schools must guide not only the individuals but groups of individuals which make up the communities, and nations, education, therefore, is the one great constructive force which should be utilized to advance the status of civilization.

This organization instructed its Committee on Foreign Relations to prepare a program which should be a part of the general program of the N. E. A. convention, and which should emphasize the need of coöperation and good will among the nations.

After the committee began its work, it found an eagerness on the part of the educators of the world to get together, and many countries suggested their willingness to send delegates to a world conference on education. The Association therefore directed its Foreign Relations committee to call such a conference, and to extend the hand of fellowship to all nations.

The conference was called to meet in San Francisco in July 1923 in connection with the N. E. A. It was attended by about 600 delegates from practically sixty countries.

The outstanding achievement of the World Conference on Education held at San Francisco in 1923 was the formation of a permanent organization to be known as the World Federation of Educational Associations which should be placed upon a permanent basis with a suitable financial foundation; with a definite group of objectives, the work to be prosecuted vigorously to the end that education might render its share of service toward creating more tolerance among nations.

SPECIAL OBJECTIVES

1. To promote friendship, justice, and good will among the nations of the world.
2. To bring about a world-wide tolerance of the rights and privileges of all nations, regardless of race or creed.
3. To develop an appreciation of the value of inherited gifts of nations and races,
4. To secure more satisfying information, and more adequate statement of facts for textbooks used in the schools of the different countries.
5. To foster a national comradeship and confidence which will produce a more sympathetic appreciation among nations.
6. To develop the consciousness of an international morality in the minds and hearts of the rising generation.
7. Finally, throughout the world, in all schools, to emphasize the essential unity of mankind and the evils of war, and to develop a psychology of peace, based upon love of country, rather than upon hatred of other peoples and countries.

After the San Francisco meeting, Mr. Raphael Herman of Washington, D. C., a public spirited and patriotic citizen, became interested in the program proposed by the W. F. E. A. and placed \$25,000 in the hands of the Federation as a prize for the best educational plan calculated to produce world peace.

Plans were submitted in twenty-three different languages and from as many countries. The jury consisted of outstanding men and women in the professional and business world. The contest was world-wide and a year was devoted to the contest. Plans were limited to 5,000 words, and only such plans as could be undertaken by an education organization were considered.

The jury awarded the prize to Dr. David Starr Jordan, Chancellor-Emeritus of Leland Stanford University. Dr. Jordan's plan called for a series of fact finding committees to make definite studies, unprejudiced, open minded, and with only one aim, that of finding the truth.

The Edinburgh meeting (1925) accepted the plan as proposed and authorized the appointment of the five committees.

THE FIVE COMMITTEES

1. The formation of a general world committee on education for peace to function with the several educational groups in the different nations and to coöperate with many already established organizations for peace in all parts of the world.

2. A committee to investigate the present teaching of history the world over, reporting also upon textbooks used, their virtues and their delinquencies, and from the standpoint of international amity, stressing the need that history, whether elementary or advanced, should be just and true so far as it goes. Above all; history should not be perverted in the supposed interest of national honor or partisanship. It also provided within this committee for the study of intelligent patriotism built upon love of country, rather than upon hatred of national foes.

3. The appointment of a committee to consider special plans for promoting mutual international understanding on the part of students of various ages including the possibilities of better relations through the international use of athletic sports, especially those games which involve coöperative action as distinguished from individual competition.

4. A committee to investigate the current arguments for war as a cosmic necessity. This committee should consider without prejudice the question of military training in school and colleges, its possible advantages to the individual and the nation with the alleged accompanying drawbacks and dangers. This committee should also deliberate on standing incentives to war, and the possibilities of their abatement through the influence of public opinion or otherwise.

5. A committee to study the Hague Court of Arbitration, also the present court of international justice, and the relation of these two judicial activities to world education, to determine what international

activities of this nature should furnish material for instruction within the schools, and how to broach the subject in a fair minded and open manner.

The Edinburgh meeting also authorized the appointment of several commissions and special committees.

1. A commission on illiteracy
2. A commission on health
3. A committee on universities
 - a. To investigate the question of establishing a world university.
 - b. To endeavor to bring about a greater unification of scientific terminology.
 - c. To encourage the establishment of a universal library office, and inquire into methods of bibliography and their possible advances.

THE TORONTO CONVENTION. THE FIRST MEETING OF THE
W. F. E. A.

When we realize that 7,500 educators representing thirty different nations participated in a program extending over a period of six days, holding thirteen general sessions with fifty-one addresses, to say nothing of the thirty-one sections and committees, some of which held meetings every day, it becomes easily apparent that anything like a comprehensive record of the Toronto meeting could not be contained in this report.

Throughout the general sessions, there was manifested in the speeches, a universal desire and unqualified willingness on the part of every delegate to continue to work for the objectives of the W. F. E. A. The addresses of E. J. Hylla (see report W. F. E. A.), one of the German delegates and Deputy Minister of Education of Prussia, was of particular interest in that it portrayed the new educational viewpoint of Germany.

Thirty-one sectional meetings embraced every phase of educational activities from pre-school instruction to university training. They included humane education, motion pictures, industrial education, in-

ternational correspondence, parent-teacher associations, sports and military training.

Every program had a common theme always in evidence, i.e., that of international understanding, and how to promote it.

The only meeting where any heated difference of opinion was in evidence developed on the subject of military training in schools and colleges. After much discussion, it was voted to carry over the discussion until 1929.

The good and evil aspects of the motion picture industry was forcibly depicted by ex-Governor Carl E. Milliken of Maine. Inasmuch as the screen speaks every language, and there are approximately 50,000 movie theatres in the world, one needs no imagination to picture the possibilities of this industry in promoting international understanding.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A member of this committee, Principal L. W. Brooks, presided at one of the secondary group sessions. Mr. Brooks also contributed much to this meeting by his paper which was devoted to those subjects taught in secondary schools which would best lend themselves to international understanding. *A copy of Mr. Brooks' paper is appended to this report, by request of the other members of this committee.

One session was devoted to the discussion of extra-curriculum activities. The best contribution made at this meeting was given by Mrs. Rachel Dubois† of Woodbury, N. J. Mrs. Dubois told of a series of assembly programs which she worked out, showing the contributions to civilization by different racial groups.

The remaining portion of this report will be devoted to some of the speeches of delegates, expressing the good will and amity of the nations represented, together with an account of the meetings of those permanent committees and commissions previously mentioned in order to show what progress if any, has been made since their inception.

The commission on health is carrying forward a special health program, and far reaching accomplishments are already recorded, especially in India.

*See page 199.

†Send to her for a copy of this program.

The commission on illiteracy reports that in the short space of two years, a reduction of Chinese characters from 4000 to 1000 has been accomplished, and that two million Chinese have been taught to read and write as a direct result of this reduction.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF FIVE COMMITTEES OF HERMAN JORDAN PLAN

COMMITTEE NO. 1—ON COÖPERATION.

Recommendations

1. That the membership of the World Committee on Education for International Understanding and Peace should include one person appointed by the President of the Federation from each member organization and such other persons as he may designate.
2. That the World Committee on Education for International Understanding and Peace should proceed to develop its program, methods and activities in harmony with its general aim, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors of the Federation.
3. That the activities of the committee should include the following:
 - a. The publication of a directory, periodically revised, listing the names, objects, and principal officers of organizations working for international understanding and interested in education for peace.
 - b. The making of a comprehensive survey of the ways by which organizations are seeking to cultivate world mindedness through geography, world civics, history, literature, sports, modern languages, special programs, and special days, books of good will, visual education projects, borderline conferences, correspondence among school children, educational exchange, and other methods of value to teachers.
 - c. The publication and distribution of periodic reports and special bulletins regarding new developments in methods of promoting international good will.
 - d. Coöperation with other organizations in the preparation of bibliographies that will inform teachers regarding the literature most helpful to education for international understanding.

- e. Promotion of interim conferences of representatives of various organizations with a view to devising further ways of coöperation.
4. That all groups having similar aims be requested to send to the committee two or more copies of each of their publications.
5. That each organization affiliated with the Federation be urged to make known to its constituency the activities of other organizations working for international understanding.
6. That the World Committee of Education for International Understanding and Peace should follow the general principle of closely coöperating with other organizations in the conduct of its activities, and when considered wise, of delegating specific undertakings to other organizations provided adequate execution thereof is assured.
7. That the World Committee on Education for International Understanding and Peace should be provided with the facilities necessary for the immediate commencement of its work.
8. That all associations affiliated with the Federation be encouraged to organize a Committee on Education for International Understanding and Peace or to designate an existing Committee, to coöperate with the World Committee on Education for International Understanding and Peace.

COMMITTEE NO. 2—ON TEACHING HISTORY.

There have been two meetings of the committee during this conference. At our first meeting, there was a report by Mr. Roberts of London, England, a member of the National Union of Teachers of England. That report expressed the English Union's sympathy with the aims and ideals of this Federation. There was a statement which I wish to pass on, coming from the meeting of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations held last year in Europe, to the effect that the French teachers through their organization reported that they voluntarily were striving to take from their textbooks on history everything tending to promote ill will towards Germany. The question was asked whether the German teachers were willing to act in a like manner with respect to France, and it was reported they too were taking steps in that direction. It was agreed that this information should be mutually disseminated in the respective countries as a means of promoting better feelings.

There was a brief report from the United States, setting out what was being done in the way of studying textbooks on their history from the standpoint of international understanding. Under the auspices of the American Association of University Women and the World Federation, working jointly, this committee is endeavoring to examine all the textbooks used in the elementary grades and high schools of the United States, to see whether they are fair and accurate in their presentation of history. This work is well under way, and it is hoped that the report will be completed by the first of next April.

It was recommended at our meeting that the International Committee on the Teaching of History should make itself acquainted with the textbooks used most widely in the different nations, feeling that this would lead to an international viewpoint in the minds of the members. The International Committee could then give the other committees in the various countries the benefit of its point of view. If one is thoughtlessly offending a friend, one ceases to do so on having one's attention called to the fact.

Another recommendation was that the International Committee should examine the courses of study in the various nations, so that we may learn what parts of the texts are taught to the students, what parts are emphasized, and so forth.

The fourth recommendation was that the attention of the countries concerned should be called to omissions in their texts on history which perhaps contribute to misunderstandings.

COMMITTEE NO. 3—ON TRAINING YOUTH IN WORLD AMITY.

Committee Recommendations

WHEREAS, The reports read before Committee No. 3, and the researches of its members show the value of personal contact in promoting friendly understanding among the youth of all nations, whether directly, by such means as international meetings and camps and properly supervised exchange, or visits of groups of children of elementary and secondary school age, or indirectly, by means of international school correspondence, essay contests and similar methods; therefore

BE IT RESOLVED, That we recommend that the World Federation endorse the continuance of these activities, and co-operate in every possible way with the agencies conducting

them, and ask the Federation to direct this, or a committee to study the problems involved therein, and to provide the means for making and study and report; and

WHEREAS, The Committee believes that competitive sports by teams as illustrated by soccer football, which is played all over the world under uniform rules, are of increasing importance in bringing nations together, when the ideals of sportsmanship are adhered to; therefore

BE IT RESOLVED, That we recommend the teaching of soccer and similar team games and competitions, with emphasis on the proper standards of conduct, as a part of the international educational program, and we ask that a study be made of the scope, objectives, and procedure pertaining to international competition and report submitted to the World Federation of Education Associations, and made available to all interested organizations of whatever nation.

President's Note: The Committee also recommends that as soon as the Federation has sufficient finance to establish a secretariate that a person be put in charge of this particular phase of the program of international relations of youth for the development of the various sorts of contacts between nations including athletic sports, school correspondence, oratorical and essay contests, and other forms which will have a tendency to bring the youth of different nations into sympathetic relations with each other.

COMMITTEE NO. 4—ON PREPAREDNESS; MILITARY TRAINING IN SCHOOLS; STANDING INCENTIVES TO WAR.

Resolution for Consideration

WHEREAS "military preparedness" on an unrestricted scale, among nations is provocative of a war spirit, and is therefore contrary to the spirit of the Treaty of Versailles; and whereas military training, as carried out in some countries in the R. O. T. C. in schools and colleges, tends to stimulate a militaristic spirit, and the view that disagreements among nations can be settled only by an appeal to the sword, the World Federation of Education Associations in conference assembled, resolves:—

1. To use its best endeavours by coöperation, among the educational forces of the world, to secure at the earliest possible moment

a limitation of armaments leading eventually to the abolition of all needless "military preparedness."

2. To endeavour to secure that systematic and technical military training shall not be given in civil educational institutions to youths under 18 years of age, and that such institutions shall in no case make military training a compulsory subject of the curricula.

3. To use every endeavour to secure the substitution of physical training, of exercise, and of sports for the military training too often now given in civil educational institutions; and so to ensure a more adequate training in character and citizenship than at present obtains in these institutions, and thus to lead the youth of the world to a better and a wider appreciation of the real meaning of patriotism and the duties of citizenship.

4. That steps be taken by the organizations connected with the Federation to carry out these resolutions as far as possible, in the educational institutions of the countries to which each organization belongs.

COMMITTEE NO. 5—ON THE HAGUE COURT OF ARBITRATION.

The function of this committee is in general, to study methods and instruments used to settle international disputes without resorting to war.

The function of this committee is not merely historical in character, but pedagogic as well. It involves not only the selection of subject matter to be woven into the courses of study of the schools and colleges, but also the method of presentation of this subject matter.

Methods of presenting the subject were discussed in various papers. All were in accord as to the efficacy of connecting this subject with other studies as geography, history, and literature and of the teaching through pageants, plays, slides, films, etc. One paper emphasized the importance of a definite place on the course of study with definite material prepared for the teacher. This was followed by a discussion on the necessity of including a course for teachers in training colleges.

Whilst the survey of the subject made in the short time at the disposal of the committee was in a sense comprehensive, it was felt that a fundamental study of methods and instruments used to settle international disputes without resorting to war involved a study of the

economic causes of war which lie underneath the mental and emotional attitudes of hate, suspicion, fear and prejudice.

Resolutions

1. WHEREAS—One of the postulates on which the whole World Federation of Education Associations is based is the assumption that through the children of the schools of the world must come the ultimate fulfilment of the Federation's purpose, namely to bring about amicable relations among all nations, by settling misunderstandings through arbitral methods rather than by war.

AND WHEREAS—it is a general concession that new mental attitudes toward international problems must be established.

AND WHEREAS—it is universally recognized that the most powerful agency known to human society in establishing these mental attitudes is the teacher, in directing aright the minds of children in the schools.

BE IT RESOLVED that Committee No. 5 of the Herman Jordan Plan recommend to the Board of Directors, the Delegate Assembly and the Committee on Resolutions, that as a result of this conference, a special committee be appointed for the formulation and declaration of certain fundamental, desirable, specific, social, and civic values that should issue from the teaching of arbitral settlement of misunderstandings.

1. To little children
2. To growing boys and girls
3. To youth in the secondary-school age
4. To college students.

AND BE IT FURTHER RESOLVED—that a special committee be appointed for evolving some practical suggestive means for giving special preparation to those who in the various teacher training institutions of the world are being prepared to teach in the elementary schools to the end that emphasis be placed upon the inculcation of the SPIRIT OF INTERNATIONAL BROTHERHOOD.

2. WHEREAS—it is a fundamental principle of education that a proper balance be maintained between the intellectual on the one hand and the moral, religious, and spiritual on the other,

BE IT RESOLVED that Committee No. 5 of the Herman Jordan Plan of Education recommend to the Board of Directors, to the Delegate Assembly, and to the Committee on Resolutions that as a result of this conference the federation advocate and promote in schools and colleges, the study of international civics including especially a study of the methods and instruments already in operation to facilitate international economic and political coöperation and friendship.

3. WHEREAS—Committee No. 5, considering "The Study of Methods and Instruments Used to Settle International Disputes Without Resorting to War," being sympathetic with every means for developing an international consciousness and feelings of friendliness among students and

WHEREAS—the wide-spread use of a simple, easily learned and adaptable auxiliary language would greatly facilitate human contacts throughout the world and, by its neutrality reduce the distrust and the suspicion that frequently lead to war, and

WHEREAS—the International Languages have been urged as this linguistic bond between the nations and apparently have had some degree of successful use therefore be it

RESOLVED that this Committee recommend to the Board of Directors, the Delegate Assembly and the Committee on Resolutions that steps be taken at once to institute a Commission to investigate the International Languages, especially as to their practicability in realizing the aims of this Federation.

BLUEPRINTS AND SPECIFICATIONS FOR HISTORY TEXTS

Just now, the World Federation is interested under the Herman Jordan Plan in a study of textbooks used in the different countries on the subject of history. The President of the World Federation has proposed to a number of history teachers in colleges that it would be an interesting project to collect the books generally used and have the students make a special study of the texts after having carefully studied the following ideals of history making. Students should observe the attitude of the author and the selection of the material in the attitude it develops. All events studied and all special characters should have a direct bearing upon the events which follow.

1. Should contain no braggadocio.
2. Should not reflect upon the integrity of honor of other nations.
3. Teaching must cultivate attitudes. All materials used in teaching history therefore should be carefully selected as to historic worth and accuracy.
4. In presenting events representing conflicts between nations, the facts should be given with no attempt to determine the justice or injustice of either, the student satisfying himself from the facts.
5. Always there should be an attempt to relieve national jealousies and racial hatreds.
6. The facts of history should be carefully selected with unfailing regard for those characters and events which have resulted in the advancement of the race towards freedom, modes of better living, and culture and the realization of ideals.
7. The study of wars need not be avoided. They were an instrument of means among primitive peoples and in use when nations had little other contact. It should be kept before the student that civilization and its advance is marked by the turning away from the military and accepting the civil rule.
8. The great characters who have figured in history are closely connected with the events and conditions which have preceded and also these characters and events have helped to shape the future and direct its trends. This phase should be carefully worked out and presented in such a manner as to give the student a proper visualization of the relationship of events to individuals.
9. History texts should contain a proper balance of sources of historic information and the narrative in order to make of the student a researcher and to give him due regard for historic authority.
10. Histories for schools should be written by committees rather than by one individual. Such committees should be made up of academic or professional and pedagogic authorities about equally balanced. The reason for this is obvious.
11. Teachers of history with their students should delete their own textbooks of: (1) Braggadocio; (2) Statements which tend to prejudice towards national neighbors; (3) Chauvinism; (4) Sentiment of revenge. The teacher could make a valuable project for her class by actual study of present day texts for these elements.

12. The first teaching of history should be by story of events and great personages who present noble qualities and self-sacrifice and courage. This should be of the inductive type or of the nationalistic spirit. This should be followed by a world viewpoint and finally a study of the native land with the world setting. The teacher has a right to expect the student to be prejudiced in favor of his own country and not against any other. Patriotism comes from nationalism, not of the extreme. It should be based upon love of country rather than upon hatred of any other. The student should get the idea of the ensemble of nations, and that he serves best who develops his moral and intellectual gifts to the fullest extent and steps across his own national boundary in the service of humanity.

Note: There should be no conflicting loyalties between our interest in humanity and our love of country. In fact, it should be considered just as wrong to be disloyal to humanity as to be guilty of treason to one's native land.

WM. E. WING
L. W. BROOKS
WILL FRENCH

In the absence of the chairman, James M. Glass of Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida, Mr. Charles E. Keyes presented the report of a committee to bring about the admission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals into the National Education Association as a department. Mr. Keyes moved the adoption of the report. Adopted.

Mr. Charles C. Tillinghast moved that the constitution as printed in the October (1927) Bulletin, No. 18 be adopted. Adopted. Thus the Association became a Department.

In pursuance of Article V. Section 1, the chairman ruled that the Department proceed at once to the nomination of the nominating committee. The chairman further ruled that three nominees only could be proposed from each of six districts of the United States. The nominations were as follows:

New England: Ernest G. Hapgood; William C. Hill; A. W. Lowe.

Middle Atlantic States: Francis R. North; Harold A. Ferguson; Charles C. Tillinghast.

South: Galen Jones; M. Channing Wagner; Mr. Warren.

East North Central: John L. G. Pattorf; H. W. Leach; Foster S. Randle.

Western: L. W. Brooks; Paul W. Harnley; Merle Prunty.

Far West: H. V. Kepner; William F. Ewing; Mr. Burcham.

While the tellers were distributing the ballots, Mr. William A. Wetzel presented Mr. Carl A. Jessen, specialist in Secondary Education, Bureau of Education, who reported as follows:

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON RE-
SEARCH IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

TO THE

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Allow me at the outset to speak my personal appreciation as well as that of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education for the opportunity extended of participation in your program.

Ever since the National Committee learned to talk it has been advocating coördination in research activities. We have been and are a coördinating, not a duplicating, committee. To the end that there may not be duplication it is desirable that we be informed of the activities of other agencies and that we acquaint these other organizations with our undertakings. Accordingly, I appear before you this afternoon to give a brief report of the work of our committee.

Preliminary organization of the National Committee on Research took place in Cincinnati three years ago when in response to invitation from Commissioner Tigert, a small group of men came together to form an agency for research in the field of secondary education. The following June permanent organization was effected and the National Committee began to function actively under the chairmanship of Dr. J. B. Edmonson of the University of Michigan. From modest beginnings the Committee has come to have coöperating with it at the present time 18 organizations. Nine of these 18 are regional agencies interested in the accrediting of secondary schools throughout various sections of the United States; the remaining nine are national organizations operating in the secondary-school field. Each coöperating organization appoints one representative on the Committee; these

18 representatives and 11 members at large constitute the present personnel of the National Committee on Research.

There has been placed in your hands a list of enterprises which have been carried forward since last February. I shall not attempt to go into detail with regard to these activities. May I be permitted, however, to summarize the accomplishments of the last 12 months:

1. Four of the Committee's investigations have been published by the United States Bureau of Education and the N. E. A.
2. Two other studies have been completed and their publication arranged for with the United States Bureau of Education.
3. Ten longer articles sponsored by the Committee have appeared in *School Life*.
4. Eight major investigations of the Committee are in progress.

As members of the Department of Secondary-School Principals you will be especially interested in noting that your own worthy representative, Dr. Wetzel, contributed two of the articles to *School Life* and is now chairman of the special committee studying the problems of the large high school.

At our meeting yesterday morning another enterprise was launched. This contemplates a coöperative study of member schools in 1930 by the five regional accrediting associations. Since these associations operate in 46 of the 48 States it is felt that a study made in the same year and on a comparable basis will approximate, giving a national view of secondary education.

The Committee has been exceedingly fortunate in its relationships with the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. You have favored us by assigning Dr. Wetzel as your representative; you have helped support us by appropriations from your association funds; and individuals in your organization have encouraged us by responding with information when asked, by giving time to committee work when called upon, and by performing from time to time those "little nameless unremembered acts" which in their spontaneous doing reveal so much regarding attitudes. For all these courtesies we say, "Thanks." And we hope you may see in the accomplishments of this last year prediction of greater attainments which we believe lie just over the horizon.

Below are listed activities for year ending February 24, 1928.

I. COMPLETED STUDIES AND PUBLICATIONS OF THE YEAR.

A. Jones, Arthur J. *An Outline of Methods of Research with Suggestions for High School Principals and Teachers*. Printed by the U. S. Bureau of Education as Bulletin, 1926, No. 24. More than 11,000 copies have been distributed.

B. Windes, E. E. *Bibliography of Studies in Secondary Education*. Printed by the U. S. Bureau of Education as Bulletin, 1927, No. 27. Approximately 8,000 copies have been distributed.

C. Norton, J. K. *Bibliography of Current Research Undertakings in Secondary Education*. Published as a mimeographed circular by the U. S. Bureau of Education, March, 1927. The full edition of 2,000 copies was distributed.

D. Roemer, Joseph. *Study of Southern Association High Schools*. Completed and accepted for publication as a bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

E. Montague, J. F. *Senior High School Promotion Plans*. Completed and accepted for publication as a bulletin of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

F. Proctor, Wm. A. *College Entrance Requirements in Relation to Curriculum Revision in Secondary Schools*. Reported in Chapter VII of the 1928 Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence.

G. The following articles sponsored by the National Committee on Research have appeared in *School Life* during the year:

1. Bliss, Walton B. Good Citizenship Built Upon Civic Integrity in High School. March, 1927.

2. Ashbaugh, E. J. Need of Uniformity in Certification of High School Teachers. April, 1927.

3. Windes, E. E. The National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. April, 1927.

4. Koos, Leonard V. Conditions Favor Integration of Junior Colleges with High Schools. May, 1927.

5. Ferriss, Emery N. Wide Variations of Practice in Small Junior High Schools. June, 1927.

6. Reavis, William C. General Guidance Responsibilities of the Secondary School. September, 1927.

7. Wetzel, William A. Plan of Rating Teachers Based Upon Pupil Accomplishment. October, 1927.

8. Roemer, Joseph. Accredited Secondary Schools of the Southern Association. November, 1927.

9. Roemer, Joseph. Secondary Schools of Southern and North Central Associations. December, 1927.

10. Wetzel, William A. Must Consider Pupils' Academic Ability and Requirements of Curricula. January, 1928.

II. STUDIES IN PROGRESS.

A. Small High Schools. Emery N. Ferriss, Chairman.

B. Large High Schools. Wm. A. Wetzel, Chairman.

C. Junior High School Conference. James M. Glass, Chairman.

D. Characteristics of High School Pupils. George S. Counts resigned as chairman. New chairman not named.

E. Procedure in Secondary Education Research. Arthur J. Jones, Chairman.

F. Drafting a Program of Related Research Undertakings. H. V. Church, Chairman.

G. Personnel Problems. F. J. Ashbaugh, Chairman.

H. Educational Subject Headings. J. K. Norton, Chairman.

The members of the nominating committee as shown by the election were: Messrs. Brooks, Jones, Hill, Hapgood, Prunty, Kepner, Tillinghast, Wagner, and Lowe.

SECOND SESSION

The second session of the convention was divided into two sections: (1) The Junior High School section, held in the Ball Room of Hotel Statler; (2) The Senior High School section, which met in the Georgian Room of the same hotel.

Vice President Charles F. Allen, Principal of West Side Junior High School of Little Rock, Arkansas, called the Senior High School section to order at 9:15 A. M., Tuesday, February 28, 1928.

Mr. Emery N. Feriss, Professor of Rural Education of Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, read his paper, *Some Important Problems of the Small High School*.

SOME IMPORTANT PROBLEMS OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

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In the time at my disposal this morning it will be necessary for me to concentrate my attention upon certain selected problems of the small high school. I shall, therefore, take up three broad but rather closely related problems that I consider of much importance. The first that I have chosen for consideration is one bearing upon the work of all small high schools as a class and upon the educational opportunities open to all youth living in territory served by small schools. It is the problem of administrative organization of high schools in rural and village communities. It involves the three sub-problems of accessibility, adequacy, and continuity or articulation. The second problem chosen for consideration is that of the curriculum; and the third, the problem of classroom instruction. A small high school, for the sake of supplying a tangible concept to guide us, is arbitrarily interpreted as one enrolling in the neighborhood of 150 or fewer pupils

and comprising as a class around 75 per cent of the public high schools in the United States.

The first phase of the problem of administrative organization is concerned with making secondary-school opportunities accessible to all adolescents of all small communities. In the solution of this phase of the problem much progress has been made especially in the last two decades. In many of our states much is still to be done before every adolescent will live within a secondary-school district with a high school reasonably accessible and with an open road to a secondary education suited to his needs, with transportation provided for, where he lives beyond walking distance of the school, and with his tuition taken care of out of public funds. Wisconsin and Colorado may serve, perhaps, as examples of what is yet to be accomplished before all adolescents live within a high-school district. In 1926 less than 20 per cent of the area of Wisconsin lay within high-school districts. Twenty-five per cent of the pupils enrolled in high schools were tuition pupils.¹ In Colorado in 1926 it is estimated that 122,000 pupils were without high-school privileges and 24,000 without district aid for needed high-school tuition.² To have all rural and village territory within some high-school district is a goal that must be attained before our system of secondary education is complete.

Our efforts to solve the problem of accessibility of high-school training, as far as it has gone, has brought us face to face with another difficulty almost as hard to solve. It is the problem of providing an adequate secondary-school education for boys and girls in the smaller rural and village communities. In the development of high schools to reach all adolescents living in the more sparsely populated sections of the country thousands of very small high schools staffed by two, three, and even one teacher, have been established. Large numbers of these smaller schools are poorly housed, poorly equipped, and poorly staffed. They can offer at best but the merest skeleton of a secondary education at a very high per pupil cost. Often their work is of a very traditional, formal type, ill adapted either to the needs of the majority of the pupils served or of modern society. Much less adequate would they be if all the children of high school age in their com-

¹John Callahan, *The Financial Situation in Wisconsin High School Districts*.

²*High School Opportunities in Colorado*, Colorado State Teachers College Bulletin No. 5, 1927.

munities were enrolled. In too large a proportion of these schools, operating as they do under serious handicaps, the work done is of poor quality. From every angle they are inadequate to meet the requirements of modern secondary education in a democracy. It is clear that in the attempt to solve the problem of accessibility, a problem that must still occupy our attention, the result has often been such as to operate against the solution of the problem of adequacy of educational opportunities for the youth of country and village.

A third phase of the problem of administrative organization of small high schools is that of giving continuity to the educational path of the child of the small community so that he can go from the elementary school into and through the high school without unnecessary breaks and obstacles and with the successful performance of his work each year of his school career leading directly into the educational activities and advantages of each succeeding year. Often the situation he faces when through the elementary school is such as to discourage him from attempting to enter the high school.

Studies have shown rather definitely that the percentage of farm populations of high school age enrolled in high school is markedly lower than that of urban populations. Windes¹ found it to be approximately 29 per cent for rural populations, ages 15 to 19, as compared with 44 per cent for urban populations in the same states. In part the relatively small percentage in rural areas is due to the fact that many boys and girls are not within the zone of influence of a high school and in part, undoubtedly, to the lack of articulation between the elementary school which they have attended and the high school to which they must go if they continue their education. In part it is probably due to the limited academic character of the training offered by the small high school, little suited to the abilities, interests, or purposes of a considerable proportion of its potential pupil population. In general the small high school has been much more concerned with lighting the way to college of the relatively small percentage of its pupils going in that direction than it has in inviting, receiving, and making at home the large number who are just leaving the elementary school.

The task of making high schools accessible to all adolescents in

¹E. K. Windes, *High School Education of the Farm Population in Selected States*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin 1925, No. 6.

the country and small village is still unfinished as are the other tasks of furnishing adequate educational advantages in the small high school and of developing proper articulation between it and the elementary schools from which it draws. The solution of these problems of administrative organization will demand careful study and much time. To realize the goal of bringing every child of high-school age within a high-school district will require painstaking, statewide study of districting for secondary-school purposes and the determination of satisfactory secondary-school units. It seems quite clear also that the intermediate units of administrative control for elementary and secondary education will necessarily need to be coterminous to ensure as far as possible close articulation between the elementary and secondary schools that draw their enrolments from the same areas. Furthermore, in many communities there will be necessary a carefully planned educational program to bring the people to a recognition of the impracticability of attempting to maintain locally a complete system of secondary education and of the desirability of coöperating with neighboring communities in providing a centralized high school for at least the senior high school work. For satisfactory results all portions of the coöperating territory will need to assume their share of financial responsibility and have a voice in determining the character and control of the school.

Careful study will need to be made of the junior high school plan of organization and its basic characteristics and functions with reference to what it can offer in the way of answering all three questions of accessibility, adequacy, and continuity. Enough studies have already been made to show rather conclusively that the 6-3-3 plan as developed in cities, with segregated junior schools, is not adapted to small systems. Yet, there is no doubt in my mind but that the essential features of the junior high school can be advantageously used in small centers if intelligently modified to suit the peculiar conditions under which the schools must operate. The question is: What particular modifications or types of organization will best meet the needs of certain types of conditions, giving them in the largest measure the advantages and benefits of this new plan of organization.

That a high school of 25 to 50 pupils with a staff of two to three teachers cannot in any real sense realize fully all the objectives of modern secondary education would seem to require no argument. In

some communities it may be necessary to maintain such schools as the best that can be afforded under existing circumstances. Generally speaking, however, the average size of the small high school must be much increased if these schools are to have staffs and facilities in the way of libraries, laboratories, shops, and the other equipments, sufficient for offering standard-school training of satisfactory standards and variety to meet adequately or well the diverse needs of their pupil populations and the increasing demands upon the secondary school. Consolidation and centralization of secondary schools into larger units with larger enrolments must come, it would appear, if the youth attending small high schools are to have in any genuine sense educational advantages comparable to those offered in large urban schools. Fortunately improved roads and improved means of transportation are making these larger secondary-school units not only possible but feasible in an ever increasing percentage of the areas served by small high schools.

In districts too small to maintain either effectively or economically six years of secondary-school work beginning with the seventh grade and where, because of geographical isolation or other reasons, complete centralization with other districts is impracticable, a three or four-year junior high school may be the best solution. Boys and girls completing the work of this school must have, however, an open road to a senior high school the work of which is closely articulated with that of the junior school. This is frequently not the case at the present time where junior high schools are in operation.

In communities capable of maintaining six years of secondary-school work, but too small to support effectively segregated junior and senior schools, the six-year high school with desirable differentiation between the junior and senior units may be superior to any other plan. Careful study and experimentation should within a reasonable length of time indicate the types of organization suited to the various types of situations. One of the greatest dangers of the small high school in its future development is that of having forced upon it any uniform administrative organization of the junior high school either in terms of the number of years included or of its administrative relationship to the senior school.

The second problem of the small high school that I wish to consider is that of the curriculum or more accurately speaking of

the program of studies and its organization into curriculums. It is one of the main problems in providing adequate educational opportunities in the small school. The larger proportion of the small high schools the country over, though many of them attempt more than they should with the facilities available, do not contain in their program of studies a sufficient range and variety of subjects to permit of their functioning in the direction of all the seven cardinal principles or any of the other recent lists of ultimate objectives set up for secondary education in a democracy. Usually their curriculums are deficient in health education and in the elements that promote worthy home membership or that bear upon the development of vocational intelligence and understanding. In civic education and training for leisure there is considerable room for doubt as to the functional character of the training offered. Much of it has been of such a formal nature and so far removed from the actual life situations faced by boys and girls of to-day in small communities that it probably has had the minimum of value. Even in the so-called fundamentals much of the work done has been along lines not genuinely fundamental in terms of the abilities, attitudes, and appreciations basic to modern life as it is participated in by the major proportion of youth attending and going out from the small high school. With too few exceptions the program of studies of the small high school is strictly academic in character. While the range of ability and the variety of aptitudes, interests, and purposes represented by its pupils are broad and diverse its educational offerings have been narrow and almost exclusively of the type suited to preparation ultimately to a very limited range of professional and non-manual occupations.

• Without discounting the excellent service that has been rendered by the small high school in the past, to-day the great problem of its program of studies is to modernize it: to make it up-to-date and to make it representative of all the major groups of life activities, problems and needs as they actually exist. The small school cannot continue to restrict its work so exclusively to that type of training to be gained through the mental manipulation of symbols and ideas. It must give opportunity also for educational activities and exercises dealing with things where problems are met and solved involving the handling and shaping of concrete materials. It must have a more balanced program. Especially must it offer educative work in the fine arts and in practical arts suited to both sexes and in those phases

of science and social science suited to the capacity and interests of the adolescent and directly helpful to the layman in adjusting himself intelligently to the common elements of his physical, economic, and social environments.

There is need in the small high school in curriculum organization of a new interpretation of the fundamentals. This will involve a distinction between fundamental as applying to the special needs of particular groups and fundamental as applying to the common needs of people in general. In the past fundamental has been interpreted largely in terms of the needs of a special group, those preparing for college. The content of nearly all academic subjects in the small high school has been influenced in large measure by the demands made upon this special group. Correctly interpreted, the real fundamentals, it would seem, should be those elements of secondary education most valuable in helping the individual to meet the common demands of his everyday life.

This interpretation of fundamentals as a step in modernizing curriculums and curriculum organization in the small high school will require a realignment of the elements common to all curriculums. The constants, or subjects required of all pupils regardless of the particular curriculum pursued, will cease to be those primarily of value for college entrance, so frequently the case at present in the small high school, and will become those subjects possessing greatest values for the citizen of a community in the United States in meeting the obligations of his everyday affairs and in utilizing and improving intelligently the opportunities of his environment for esthetic, intellectual, and recreational enjoyment and healthful living.

These constants are probably to be found in an analysis of the health, economic, vocational, civic, social, intellectual, recreational and esthetic activities of to-day with the moral-ethical habits, attitudes, and ideals desirable in connection with them. From this analysis must be gradually determined those elements commonly desirable, because of their universal utility, in the educational equipment of all normal individuals. In other words, the constants will be those subjects promising the greatest functional values to high-school pupils regardless of whether or no their formal schooling stops with the high school or continues on into higher institutions of learning.

In meeting these common needs of the great mass of secondary-school pupils the small high school has its primary responsibility. This it should meet above all things else. Its secondary responsibility, in the meeting of which it should go as far as its facilities and number of pupils justify, is concerned with the differentiated or special needs of important pupil groups. These special needs should determine the major community adaptations of the small high school so far as concerns the general problem of differentiated curriculums and will ordinarily include such differentiations as are made desirable by the requirements of the group preparing for college, the major interest and aptitude groups in the school not planning to go beyond the high school, and the major vocational groups. These are the determining factors in curriculum differentiation in the small four-year or senior high school. The school should go as far as it can in partially or fully meeting the needs of these special groups without, however, impairing the work necessary in satisfying its primary responsibility.

Two other phases of the curriculum problem in the small high school are those concerning the content of the curriculum in its adaptation to the experience background of the pupil and in its provision for differences in ability. It is a psychological principle of sociological significance that learning is most meaningful when the learning activity is closely linked up with the learner's life. In the past the small high school has made but little use of this principle and has utilized little if at all the educational materials of the community in which it was situated. The educational activities of the school have had but little relation to the school's physical and social environment. Progress is being made slowly, especially in certain types of practical arts and vocational work where these have come into the curriculums of the small school. Much is still to be accomplished before the small high school will capitalize upon the educational resources at hand in the fields of the physical and biological sciences, in civics, government and institutional life, in economics, in health and sanitation and in the materials of value in the development of recreational habits and attitudes and in esthetic appreciation and enjoyment. To utilize its local educational resources as educational instruments and the materials of educational growth and life enrichment without making these the end of its instruction

and so restricting the youth in his perspective of life in general, presents one of the curriculum challenges of the small high school.

To adapt its work to differences in ability is another curriculum challenge to the small high school. With its limitations in numbers of both pupils and teachers it has done but little in this direction. Ability grouping as practiced in the large urban school is not feasible. Other means must be found if the small high school is to meet the demands of modern secondary education. While no final solution of this problem can be offered it would appear that experimentation is desirable along certain lines that are apparently feasible. Their real values can only be determined through experimentation. In the first place, may it not be well to permit and even encourage healthy pupils of superior ability in greater numbers than are ordinarily permitted at the present time to carry more than the standard load and by so doing to complete their secondary-school course in less time than is required by those of average ability or less? This would mean for a considerable percentage of pupils the saving of one to two years in completing their course in the junior and senior high schools. Guidance would be necessary, to be sure, to protect the health of such pupils, to guarantee a reasonable amount of participation in extra class activities, and to keep those whose mental maturity is far in advance of their physiological and social development from undue strain because of lack of adjustment in these respects.

A second feasible means of adjusting the work of the small high school to individual differences in ability is the organization of each course of study on the plan of minimal requirements and additional opportunities for those who have sufficiently mastered the requirements. This plan is based upon the principle of enriched courses for the more capable pupils rather than that of more rapid promotion, though it might be well to combine the two. To conduct a course successfully according to this plan the teacher must set up definitely the objectives of the course and determine carefully in the light of these objectives the minimal requirements. The additional activities and exercises should be valuable, integrally related to the objectives, and should challenge the interests and abilities of the superior pupils. Their performance should be recognized in the quality of credit gained. To inaugurate this plan in the small high school will require more facilities in the way of instructional materials than are afforded by a single textbook.

There are other possible ways of providing for differences in ability in the small high school as, the Dalton plan or modifications of it, the use of the project, and permitting superior pupils to pursue more or less independently the work of a course. All of them demand better prepared teachers and more supervisory assistance than are at present available in the majority of small high schools.

Improving the character of classroom instruction in the small high school is the third and last problem that I wish to present. It has many angles and is closely bound up with the problem of curriculum just discussed. Because of its many aspects and complexity, it is a difficult problem. It is a problem of teaching facilities in the way of materials and other equipment, of teachers, of teaching load, of teacher experience and training, and of supervision.

Practically all studies of instruction in the small high school have resulted in the conclusion that it is formal and inflexible. The summary of the study¹ of classroom instruction in the small high schools of New York state was as follows: "In the main the teachers showed a conscientious, earnest attitude toward their work. Many instances of teaching strong in certain respects were found. As a whole, however, the work of the classroom was of a formal, abstract type. Few supplementary materials were used in the way either of readings or of devices to make teaching more concrete. But little use was made of the sources in the community available to the pupils. In the main the work lacked definiteness and immediacy of aim; no real objectives standing out as the goals to be attained. Almost no use was made of the assignment as an integral part of the teaching process. The major part of the work might be characterized as informational, with emphasis upon the memorizing of a mass of material. Finally, the teaching as a whole was not of a type to stimulate pupils to initiative, to originality, or to the assuming of personal responsibility for results." Ruff,² after an intensive study of a group of small high schools, came to practically the same conclusion and writes with regard to instruction: "It is conservative to say that ninety-five per cent of all the material presented and studied in all of the courses in all of these schools is found between the covers of the textbooks used. Not one recitation was found in which reference or supplementary

¹E. N. Ferriss, *The Rural High School*, Vol. 7, Rural School Survey of New York State.

²John Ruff, *The Small High School*.

material played a dominant part. . . . No cases were found where the teacher either urged, expected, or required the brighter pupils to do work not assigned to the entire group."

There are several factors operating to make difficult the vitalization of classroom instruction in the small high school. In the first place a large percentage of its teachers are inexperienced. Again, the turnover in teaching personnel each year is very high. The more capable and better prepared teachers after a year or two of apprenticeship in the small school move on to a position in a large village or city high school where larger salaries are obtainable, where better social advantages exist, and where the teaching conditions are better. To an undesirable degree the small school serves as a training school for the large centers. There is undoubtedly a tendency also for the experienced teachers in the small school to be either those who have insufficient training to enter the large high school or those who possess mediocre teaching ability and personality. To be sure there are some very comforting exceptions to this tendency. The last but not the least of the difficulties to be mentioned in the task of improving classroom instruction in the small high school is the lack of effective supervision and of the means of providing opportunity and incentive for group consideration by teachers of their professional problems.

In New York state in 1920-21,¹ 75 per cent of the teachers in the small high schools had been teaching in the school where they then were but two years or less, 49 per cent of them being in their first year of service. In Wisconsin² in the same year over 50 per cent of the instructors in two-teacher high schools were teaching their first year in the school. The data also showed that in three-teacher schools almost 60 per cent remained two years or less. The median teaching experience of teachers in high schools of two to six teachers was four years as contrasted with eight years for high schools with more than fifteen teachers. In Texas Judd³ found the median amount of experience in high schools of one to ten teachers to be approximately three years as contrasted with approximately eight years for city high schools of the state.

The academic and professional training of the teachers in the

¹Emery N. Ferriss, *The Rural High School*.

²C. J. Anderson, *The Status of Teachers in Wisconsin*.

³C. H. Judd, *Secondary Education*, Vol. 3, Texas Educational Survey Report.

small high school is in most states relatively meagre in amount. In Wisconsin in high schools of two to five teachers only 21 per cent were college or university graduates as compared with 31 per cent for six-teacher schools, 64 per cent for schools of eleven to fifteen teachers and 69 per cent for high schools of more than fifteen teachers. In Texas, in the smallest high schools, 34 per cent of the women and 19 per cent of the men held college degrees, in ten-teacher schools 58 and 51 per cent respectively, and in high schools in first class cities 86 per cent of the women and 73 per cent of the men held college or university degrees.

Another factor entering into the problem of instruction in the small high school is the teaching load. The only bright spot in the teaching load in the small school is the small total number of pupil hours for the teacher. In most small schools this advantage is more than offset by the operation of other factors. As a general thing the number of periods of teaching is large. More serious than this, however, is the number of different subjects for which the teacher is responsible daily. In New York state the median number of different subjects handled daily was 3.3 for instructors in high schools with enrolments of 150 or fewer. Available figures for other states show an even larger number. Studies of the number of different daily preparations necessary in the work of the teacher in the school of three to five teachers indicate that five to six different preparations represent a conservative estimate. When these preparations are distributed over three or four subject-matter fields as they frequently are, it is readily to be seen that the teacher's task is tremendous and that the problem of vitalizing instruction in the small high school is exceedingly difficult. This already serious problem is made more serious by the fact that a considerable percentage of the teachers are giving instruction in one or more subjects in which they have had little training in subject matter and no training in methods of presentation. In fact, in many cases teachers are giving no instruction in subjects representing either their major or their minor field in their academic preparation, all their teaching being done in a wide variety of subjects in none of which they have had an adequate background of training. In the face of these facts one answer to the question, why is such a large proportion of the instruction in the small high school limited to a single textbook, becomes plainly evident. It could be of no other sort under the conditions.

How may improvement in instruction in the small high school be brought about? One answer is by better library facilities. The small school in many instances, perhaps the majority, does not have adequate library facilities. In most cases those in charge have not recognized the important place of the library in modern secondary-school instruction. There is great need in the small school of a library with rich supplementary and reference materials in the way of books, periodicals, bulletins, and newspapers, and particularly the three last, covering the various phases of modern life and achievement and suited to catching and stimulating the curiosity and interests of high-school pupils and affording fruitful leads for their intellectual development. This library must be so organized and managed as to be available for use at all times during the school day. Its resources must be utilized in classroom work and training must be given in the use of library materials.

Although a good library is fundamental in the equipment of the small high school, it can never occupy the place it should in instruction until changes can be effected in the teaching staff and its teaching load. Minimal requirements for teaching in the small school must be placed upon the same level with regard to academic and professional training as is required for teaching in the city high school. Salaries must be placed on comparable levels. To bring about these changes will probably require a greater proportion of state support for small high schools than is commonly available at the present time and perhaps even the tapping of some of our national resources now devoted to building huge navies for peaceful purposes.

Ways must be discovered also of reducing the number and variety of subjects in the daily program of the teacher and in the number of different daily preparations demanded of the teacher. Much can be accomplished in this direction, even with schools as they are, by more careful organization of the teaching schedules in the small school and the determination of desirable subject combinations to be handled by each instructor. If these combinations can be partially standardized so that they will have some similarity in different schools, teacher training institutions can more intelligently plan the curriculums of prospective teachers and guide their preparation. Early planning by principals or other officers in charge of employing teachers with regard to the subjects for which these teachers will be responsible will help to improve conditions. Carefully planned sys-

tems of subject alternations will assist materially in reducing the number of subjects handled by a teacher in any one year without necessitating the contraction of the already limited program of studies. The organization of six-year schools with instructors teaching in both the junior and senior units will automatically increase the size of the teaching staff and make a greater amount of specialization practicable and possible. It will reduce the number of different subject-matter fields in the teacher's schedule even though it does not reduce the number of different preparations required.

Here as in the other problems discussed the fundamental change necessary in reducing the teaching load to a reasonable figure will depend upon the elimination of the extremely small high school wherever practicable and the development of schools serving larger areas, with larger pupil enrolments and larger staffs. To bring into the classroom of the small high school the use of modern methods of instruction, a better selection and organization of teaching materials and learning activities, wider use of the library and other sources beyond the textbook, and the adaptation of instruction to differences in ability, there must come into the small high school more better trained teachers and more teachers with successful teaching experience. In addition there must be in operation an adequate system of supervision.

The supervision of instruction should be the responsibility of someone well-trained in the purposes and technics of supervision, who is intimately acquainted with the conditions under which the teacher works and with the material with which he works. This person should understand the special problems of each teacher and should be able to determine the direction in which improvement is most needed and the ways in which it may be most effectively realized. His task is a difficult one since he must devise ways and means of helping teachers, often with a moiety of experience or training, who are at best responsible for instruction in several subjects, whose time and energy available for studying, planning, and organizing their work is very limited and at whose command is often the minimum in the way of instructional materials and aids.

Ordinarily, with the conditions as they are, supervision in the small high school should not be aimed exclusively at the direct improvement of classroom procedures and management as such. It will need to be much broader in its actual operation and give emphasis

as opportunity permits to the building up of fundamental principles of teaching. It should lead the teachers to an understanding of the purposes of modern secondary education and its ultimate objectives. It should lead them to see the place of their particular subjects in the general scheme of things. Often it will be necessary to develop in teachers a new conception of the curriculum, of courses of study, and the principles of selection, organization, adaptation, and use of instructional materials as means to an end rather than as ends in themselves. It will often mean training in modern means and methods of testing the results of instruction and of diagnosing teaching and learning difficulties. It will usually mean providing teachers with helpful guides and suggestions for the conduct of their work, and building with them courses of study or of interpreting and adapting state courses to local needs. It will involve the planning of teachers' meetings where common teaching problems are co-operatively considered. It will involve providing opportunities for teachers to observe superior teachers at work and to study their methods. Among other things it will mean making available to teachers current professional literature pertaining to their teaching problems and the stimulation of teachers to become acquainted with such literature. It should mean also within reasonable limits the encouragement of teachers to make small studies of their own and to experiment under guidance with new methods and devices.

These are some of the things that, as opportunity and need point the way, supervision in the small high school should be concerned with if it is to be reasonably effective in improving classroom instruction. Unfortunately, however, the supervision in the small school at present is ordinarily not of the type to accomplish these things. Data could be offered in support of the statement just made if time permitted. The principal is usually responsible for a heavy teaching schedule in addition to his various administrative duties. Often he has little or no clerical assistance for the routine work of his office. Much of his time is devoted to the direction and supervision of pupil activities both in the high school and the elementary school of which he is often in charge. Consequently, the time at his disposal for the improvement of instruction is extremely limited. Frequently, he does not have the training needed in supervision and the theory of secondary education to make it possible for him to utilize profitably the little time that he has.

Is there any solution to the problem of making supervision in the small high school a positive instrument in the improvement of classroom instruction? It is difficult to see what the solution can be so long as the majority of such schools are as small as they are and so long as they exist as independent supervisory units. State supervision, except possibly in a few of our smallest states, can never, I believe, solve the problem. It is too infrequent and works at too long a range. Genuinely constructive supervision must be more intimate; it must obtain its results through the close coöperation of supervisor and teacher and be based upon a common understanding of the teaching problems involved.

It seems evident that the problem must be solved, if at all, either through supervision by the local principal or through a supervisor responsible for a group of small high schools with a total of twenty to thirty or thirty-five teachers.

In four-year high schools or junior-senior schools with staffs of eight to twelve teachers the principal may well be responsible for the supervision of instruction in his school. With two hours a day devoted to classroom observation, individual conferences, the planning of teachers' meetings and other supervisory duties, a trained principal can do effective supervisory work. In many schools this would require that he be relieved from a part of his present teaching load and some of the clerical work for which he is responsible.

In smaller high schools the more practicable solution of the problem of supervision, if it could be brought about, would be to have a supervisor of instruction for a group of schools. This person might be the principal of one of the schools but with no teaching schedule. The principals of the other schools in the group would be teaching principals primarily but with responsibility for the general administration of their schools. Such an arrangement would necessitate the coöperation of the schools concerned, a thing not easily brought about in sections of the country where the high schools are independent units. Under the county plan of school organization one or more high school supervisors for the small high schools of the county might offer the best solution of the problem.

The county or the group plans of supervision would have some distinct advantages with respect to certain of the broader aspects of supervision and the training of teachers in service. Teachers' meet-

ings in small high schools are frequently difficult to manage, particularly in the study of problems of teaching, because the numbers of teachers are too small to make discussion either interesting or profitable. In general there is no opportunity in small schools for teachers to discuss with others teaching the same subjects their common problems. Groups are not large enough to do any real constructive work on curriculum and other problems. In other words, the teacher in the small school is in a sense isolated professionally. The conditions are lacking for professional stimulation. In the city high school the teacher is always in competition with others doing the same type of work. He is continually in contact professionally with his colleagues in his own school and at frequent occasions with the teachers of the other high schools in the city. Important problems are worked out in large groups. Group discussions of common teaching problems are an integral part of the city teacher's professional life. This stimulation is ordinarily lacking in the small high school. County or group supervision might in part supply the basis for this needed professional life. The teachers of the schools in a supervisory group would make a natural unit for teachers' meetings. In these meetings all the teachers would frequently come together to discuss the questions presented by programs growing out of the common teaching problems of all the coöperating schools.

In conclusion, the problem of improving classroom instruction in the small high school is one of better teachers, better equipment in the way of materials of instruction, a longer tenure of teachers, and an improved teaching load. It is also a question of more effective supervision and the frequent bringing together of teachers in sufficiently large groups for the interchange of professional ideas and the profitable discussion and study of professional problems.

Character Education in Secondary Education, a paper, was presented by Walter F. Downey, Head Master of English High School, Boston.

*CHARACTER EDUCATION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

WALTER F. DOWNEY,

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In presenting this statement relating to character education in secondary schools let me say that it is the result of over four years of intensive study, investigation and experimentation by the High School Head Masters' Association of Boston.

Our purpose is to submit certain principles and illustrative material of practical value in shaping and conducting a program of character education in the secondary schools of Boston. The Association has endeavored to prepare a suggestive, workable plan of procedure. It includes the factors involved in the proper conduct of this important work of developing right attitudes in the youth of our city, and is an attempt to formulate a plan by which specific worth while qualities of character may be developed through definite life situations.

The development in the individual pupil of a good character which shall rightly shape and control his conduct in and out of school, and throughout his later life, is an educational task of no mean order. No plan, however well conceived and organized, will, of itself, bring about the desired result. The successful achievement of our great objective can be secured only through the loyal, painstaking, and intelligent coöperation of every teacher. The teacher must make all the life of the school, the teaching of every subject, the dealing with all matters of discipline, the atmosphere and spirit of the school, count for good moral education. The teacher must realize that the work of character education is a practical everyday matter demanding constant attention and practical wisdom in its conduct. And to the degree that the teacher measures up to this ever present responsibility, to that degree will the success of this character program be assured.

*Discussion of a report by the High School Head Masters' Association of Boston, School Document No. 14, 1927, published February, 1928.

The Pupil and the World of To-day.—What is the exact situation faced by a teacher who has the responsibility for developing right character in secondary-school pupils? In the first place, it must be recognized that these young people have arrived at the age when they are thoughtfully keen and critical concerning all matters which secure their attention, more especially those things which seriously affect any purpose or result upon which they have set their hearts. Therefore, situations which arouse strong satisfaction or strong dissatisfaction are likely to be of frequent occurrence. Again, these pupils are engaged in that most interesting but baffling process of finding themselves, which further complicates the situation. They are living in an age of phenomenal change and progress as well as of intense activity and competition. The world about them is full of challenge, arousing their curiosity at every turn and constantly stimulating them to interested inquiry and investigation. All parts of the globe are so intimately linked together to-day by the telegraph, the radio, and other recent inventions that, without leaving his own community, the child may be brought each day into direct contact with the life of far distant lands, and, as a matter of fact, the city in which he lives is cosmopolitan in its population, customs, language, and ideals. The individual boy and girl in the group varies widely in native ability, in environment and cultural opportunities, in knowledge and background, in disposition, ambitions and ideals.

Mastery in All Undertakings.—In the modern conception of education a most important phase of character development lies in guiding the pupil to complete achievement in all of his tasks, so that he may acquire what is sometimes spoken of as achieving power and habit. The process of education through self-activity requires three conditions to operate effectively: (1) That the pupils should be given opportunity to be problem finders as well as problem solvers, because problem finding and solving are infinitely more productive in the development of vital minds than is problem solving alone; (2) That whatever activity is undertaken, whether it be academic study, mechanic arts, practical arts, fine arts, or athletics, the principle should be accepted and followed that if the thing is worth assigning and is properly assigned it is worth *mastering* one hundred per cent, not sixty per cent or seventy per cent only, before passing on to the next bit of work; and (3) That, before considering any problem as completed, the pupil should feel sure in his own mind, through the

use of checks and other means, that his work is correct. In this way he reaches that assured success in one undertaking which brings to him great encouragement amounting to a strong motivation for the next undertaking. This is in accord with the fundamental principle that character building is a cumulative process.

Character Traits.—These should include the following habits and attitudes:

1. *Responsibility.*—The willing acceptance of personal and social responsibility.

2. *Justice.*—The cultivation of habitual acts of fair play, honesty, truthfulness, and honor.

3. *Strength.*—The development of strength of various sorts, including independence, bravery, industry, perseverance, self-respect, self-control, moral cleanliness in thought, word and act; cheerfulness and self-sacrifice, with their varieties and inter-relations.

4. *Good Will.*—The promotion of good will, including kindness, generosity, open-mindedness, sympathy, service, respect for the rights of others and reverence for all that is good.

5. *Loyalty.*—The development of loyalty, in thought, word and deed, to the ethical and moral standards of the family, school, church, community, state and nation, and a proper regard for duly constituted law and authority.

(Note.—These qualities of character are not mutually exclusive. In general, one quality cannot be developed fully without the cultivation of others.)

Factors Involved in Character Education in the School.—The character developed in the pupil by the school is the result of all the experiences which constitute his school life. Therefore, everything which enters into his life as a pupil must be thought of as contributing its share to the result, and each activity and influence must be so guided and controlled as to work toward the desired goal. Many and varied are the factors which have a part in this complex business of making strong men and women.

Functions of the High-School Principal.—The head master has a number of important and difficult functions to perform in the general scheme of moral training. He is the liaison officer between the school and the parents. He is the interpreter to the public of the

aims and the achievement of the school. To the faculty he is not merely an administrative superior; he is both counsellor and friend. To the students (besides being judge and court of appeal) he is a quickening, vitalizing influence, a perennial source of encouragement. Moreover, he represents the school to the alumni, and endeavors to make them realize their part in fostering the ideals of the school and in maintaining as an active force for good that larger community which is made up of past and present pupils.

The Teacher.—The head master sets the scene for those activities of the school out of which moral training grows. The organization of the school and the final control of policy are in his hands. But it is the teacher who has the close and constant daily contact with the pupil. His, therefore, is the great molding influence: "As is the teacher so is the school." Day after day, by word and deed he touches the emotions, influences the thoughts, guides and inspires the actions of the pupils with whom he comes into intimate contact. The teacher stands before his class an open book read by them at all times. There is no more alert audience than a group of pupils. "Actions speak louder than words." Therefore, the teacher's ideals of life, his habits of action, his character, are making daily impress on the lives of his pupils, and are received by them as his real teaching concerning character and citizenship.

Included in our report we present a professional code of ethics for the teachers, as well as two moral codes for pupils. Experience has shown us that student participation in school government appears to be an important means of promoting worthy citizenship training in the school.*

A school wishing to introduce student participation will do well to consider the following conclusions, drawn from a study of practice throughout the country for two decades.

- a. Student participation should be introduced gradually.
- b. The machinery for its administration should be simple.
- c. The students themselves must desire in a genuine way to participate in the government of the school.

*By permission: See The Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II.

d. The faculty must be sympathetic, patient and willing in every way to make the movement a success. Student participation is necessarily a coöperative matter.

e. The plan must provide for means by which *all* students are given opportunities to participate in the government of the school.

Student participation seems to aid in developing important qualities, such as responsibility, initiative, leadership, fellowship, school pride, and a respect for law and order.

To assist others in the organization and control of student participation we have included constitutions of student councils now in use in some of the Boston high schools.

Student Group Activities.—The word "extra-curriculum"* as commonly applied to student group activities is something of a misnomer. It is questionable whether it is wise to use a term which seems to make a decided separation between the curriculum itself and activities which have their rise in the curriculum. Since, however, the connotation of the term is generally understood, it will doubtless continue to be used until a better one is accepted by educators.

Character Values of School Clubs.—The following character values are claimed for school clubs: (1) They furnish the opportunity for adolescent boys and girls to express themselves in wholesome and recreative instead of dangerous activities; (2) They serve as a training ground for leadership, not self-appointed or self-willed, but a socially-minded leadership; (3) They offer training in coöperative team work; (4) They provide an opportunity for the development of loyalty; (5) They help to development character by the overcoming of unsocial or purely individualistic tendencies.

Among many clubs it is possible for each pupil to find a place where, led by his individual tastes and interests, he may learn to follow as well as to lead, to coöperate as well as to initiate. Loyal "fellowship," leadership, coöperation, and initiative may be developed through club organizations.

Principles Underlying a Club Program.—For a successful club program the following principles should be observed:

1. Time should be set aside for the club activities.

*By permission: See The Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part II.

2. Only those clubs should be introduced which meet the aims of education.

3. Enough clubs should be included in the social program so that the varied interests of all pupils may be met.

4. Each club should be sponsored by a teacher who is interested in individuals as well as in subjects, and who knows how to work by indirect and suggestive methods.

5. Each club must stand for something worth while so that it will hold the interest of its members.

6. Guidance of pupils in choice of clubs is often necessary.

A list is given of twenty-four different clubs found in secondary schools of the country, with the purpose of each and the type of student activity represented by each.

Next we call attention to the character values of: (a) The high-school library and; (b) The various forms of visual aids including:

1. Sculpture
2. Mural Tablets
3. The Flag
4. Announcements of Student Activities
5. Honor Rolls
6. Thrifts and Other Educational Charts
7. Films
8. Exhibition Cases
9. Exhibits
10. Moral Code Posters
11. Messages through Art Display Posters (Copies of large display posters, issued by the Mather Co., Chicago, Ill., are included)

The character values which may be obtained from each subject in the curriculum of the secondary school are analyzed, organized and presented. For this purpose the curriculum has been divided as follows:

1. Social Studies
2. English Composition and Literature

3. Foreign Languages
4. Mathematics
5. The Sciences
6. Music
7. Art
8. Commercial Subjects
9. Domestic Arts
10. Physical Education for Boys and Girls.

In addition, we have studied various specific forms of personality records, with which we have experimented for many years. Definite suggestions for the necessary administrative technique relating to these records are given. Abundant material has been supplied for special instruction by section and home room teachers as well as a list of specific school situations in which character traits are stressed.

We have included also in our report twenty-four pages of quotations classified under the headings responsibility, justice, strength, good will and loyalty, as well as an extensive bibliography on the subject.

This report on Character Education is released for the first time to-day. We submit it to the National Association* as our contribution to this important topic. Character training in the abstract is not new; valid methods and organized material for their effective use in the secondary-school program have been difficult to secure.

In presenting our report to you to-day we do so with the hope that it may be in the nature of a definite forward step in organized material, which will be of assistance to you, as administrators, to your teachers, to the boys and girls in your charge, and that it may assist the secondary schools in achieving their great aim—"to equip pupils as fully as possible with the habits, insights, and ideals that will enable them to make America true to its traditions and its best hopes."†

*Bureau of Education Bulletin (1917) No. 51.

†Of Secondary-School Principals.

Professor Bancroft Beatley, Assistant Professor of Education, Harvard University, read his paper, *The Battle of the Specialists in Secondary Education*.

THE BATTLE OF THE SPECIALISTS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

BANCROFT BEATLEY,

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It is becoming increasingly evident that even the most competent secondary-school principal is incapable of dealing adequately with all the phases of education which are his concern. A series of brief quotations from the report of a recent school survey will make this clear.

. . . the . . . supervisory and administrative authority (of the Director of Vocational Education) over the high schools as a whole needs to be strengthened by a clear understanding that he is in charge of public vocational education in the city. . . . The very nature of industrial education, ever-changing as it must be to meet new demands and circumstances arising in industry, demands that there be direct and speedy contact between the Director and the Superintendent of Schools. . . . we recommend that the Director of Vocational Education be given the responsibility and the official title of "Associate Superintendent of Schools in charge of Practical Arts and Vocational Education."

A Director of Commercial Education should be appointed. He should be held responsible for the development of commercial education in the junior high schools, senior high schools, evening high schools, and continuation schools.

. . . a Director of Home Economics, with rank and salary equal to that of the directors of other subjects, should be appointed to unify and develop the program of home economics education in the schools of the city.

Everything relating to this (physical education) should be put directly under the supervision of the Director of Physical Education.

There should be some central supervising authority (in English) that will ascertain where the strong work is being done, discover the methods that give the best results, and have them generally used to equalize the educational opportunities of pupils throughout the city.

Competent general supervision and leadership in the social studies for the system as a whole would be justified by the number and size of the departments and the importance of the field.

In order to insure continuity of instructional aims and purposes, the science work of both the elementary and high school grades should be organized as a single supervisory unit. The need of the agency of a supervisor of science in the . . . school system is urgent.

In order to provide a uniform excellence of organization and of method in the teaching of foreign languages . . . it is . . . recommended that a foreign-language director . . . be attached to the superintendent's office.

Unified supervision of school libraries should be provided for by the appointment of a School Library Supervisor.

It is clear from the foregoing quotations that the responsibility for determining what shall be taught and how it shall be taught is to be transferred from the domain of the high-school principals to that of the newly appointed specialists. The principals are to be "yes" men as far as the supervision of instruction is concerned. But no—the survey report is quite emphatic that the principalship shall not diminish but increase in importance.

It is strongly recommended that all the principals of . . . secondary schools accept the improvement of teaching as their primary responsibility and that they coöperatively and individually devise means of performing this duty more effectively.

It is obvious to one who studies the secondary schools of . . . that what is needed more than anything else is leadership. A definite general policy must be enumerated by the

Superintendent; sympathy with it and a willingness to work for it must be developed in the teachers. But it cannot be effective without professional coöperation and active leadership by the principals. Stimulated from above and agreeing among themselves on the purpose of secondary education as the fitting of each individual adolescent for better social living, they can lead their teachers to mighty accomplishment for public good. The secondary school to-day is a potent instrument to determine the progress of the next generation. Its success depends on the vision, the courage, the industry, the tact—in short, on the leadership of its principal. Hence the emphasis in this report on the fact that the principal should be professionally-minded.

These sharply contrasting points of view suggest that it is the work of the specialists to take the child apart and the job of the principals to put him together again. Such a conclusion would be grossly unfair to the specialists; they have a significant contribution to make to the advance of secondary education. The purpose of this discussion is to analyze the functions of specialist and principal and indicate the administrative relationships which should obtain. The problem is by no means confined to the largest cities. It will be found in any community which has two or more distinct units for secondary education, as, for example, a junior high school separate from a senior high school.

Consider the problem in a typical setting. Community X has a junior high school and a senior high school. The principal of the junior high school is a man who has made considerable study of junior high school education and is attempting to offer a progressive type of secondary education in grades 7, 8, and 9. The principal of the senior high school is a man who has had difficulty in adjusting himself and his school to the junior high school movement. The department heads in the senior high school have supervisory responsibility for junior high school work in their respective fields. The specialist in English believes that the objectives of language and literature are sufficiently distinct and the needs of children in these aspects sufficiently diverse to demand the separation of language and literature throughout the secondary-school period. The junior high school principal agrees. The principal of the senior high school dis-

sents. He believes sincerely that the proposal of the specialist is inconsistent with effective work in his school. Here is an apparent conflict between the needs for a course of study in English which will unify effort in this field throughout the secondary-school period, and the need for integrating the education of the pupil within the senior high school.

Again, the specialist in home economics conceives the functions of her field as transcending training in the techniques of home making. Her course of study must include hygiene and sanitation, home decoration, responsibilities of parenthood, and community relationships of the family, and in addition vocational training for girls. The principals of both junior and senior high schools are unsympathetic. They contend that much of what she plans to include is already being treated in general science, biology, art, and community civics. She argues that educational materials should be realigned according to objectives. Home economics is a field of education, not just a subject.

These illustrations will serve to point out the following possibilities of conflict.

1. The specialist and one principal agree; the other principal dissents.
2. The principals agree; the specialist dissents.

It need hardly be pointed out that the question of who is right does not enter. All three may agree perfectly and still be wrong.

The issue is: in case of conflict of purpose between principal and specialist, who shall have the authority to resolve the conflict? In our schools as at present organized, principals pretty largely have final authority in such matters. The principal's lack of true understanding of some of the problems which the specialist faces, and the need for unifying the objectives and content of courses in two or more articulated or parallel schools have given impetus to the movement to free the specialist from the domination of the principal. In the cases sighted above, the adjustment arrived at in many school systems would be that the work in English would lack unity as it would be organized differently in junior and senior high schools; the home economics teacher would be forced to limit her activities to training

in the techniques of home making, securing such coöperation as she could from teachers of related subjects.

The constitutional optimist will say that the situation pictured is overdrawn; that in an actual case the principals and specialists will take counsel together and work out a plan that is agreeable to all concerned. True, in some cases; in others, false. When the lines of authority and responsibility give control over the industrial work in all secondary schools of a system to a director of vocational education, with the salary and title of assistant superintendent, the principals must accept his dicta if they cannot persuade him to consider their views. True coöperation is possible only among those of approximately equal status.

Before defining the relationship which in the writer's judgment should obtain between principal and specialist, it is of value to point out that both principal and specialist have distorted views of secondary education. The principal tends more than the specialist to look at the pupil as a whole, but the principal's training and experience have been almost completely along academic lines. He has probably given more time to the study of education than the specialist and he thinks more readily in terms of the general objectives of secondary education. The principal tries to look at the whole picture, but his experience throws an academic haze over it. He sees certain details clearly, others vaguely, if at all.

The specialist, on the other hand, has had to give so much time to the mastery of his special field that his recognition of the general objectives of education is likely to be superficial, if not definitely faulty. His work forces him so constantly to view only one phase of the pupil's development that it is little wonder he tends to magnify the importance of his field. The specialist who combines: (1) A mastery of his subject; (2) Knowledge of the details of content and method appropriate to his field; (3) A general competence in the principles of education; and (4) An unexaggerated sense of the importance of his field is so rare that it is hopeless to expect to find him in quantities sufficient to supply the demand.

If it be granted that the specialist is needed to work out the details of curriculum and methodology and that the principal is needed to integrate all phases of instruction within his school in the

direction of appropriate general objectives, does it not follow that the principal and specialist must be on an equal footing in the school system? Such a conclusion appears inevitable if we are to secure proper leadership in both kinds of position. If the specialists are to be subordinate to the principals, there is little to attract competent people to undertake the training necessary for leadership in a special field. If the principals are to be inferior in rank and authority to the specialists, the principalship will be a post for relatively second-rate men. The thesis here advanced is that both types of position demand leadership of a high order.

The effective working of a plan of supervision wherein principal and specialist are freed from domination by each other implies the necessity for determining their respective functions in such a manner that responsibility for a given function may be located in a single individual. Otherwise, neither principal nor specialist will know where his job begins and ends. Teachers need to know to what quarter they should look for guidance on a given phase of their work. The accompanying analysis indicates the lines along which the differentiation of function between principal and specialist may be attempted. Such an analysis is helpful only as it tends to create conditions favorable to coöperative effort. It is not intended that the responsibilities of either principal or specialist shall be narrowly defined. (See chart page 79.)

It will be noted that, in some phases of instruction, the responsibilities of principal and specialist overlap to such a degree that joint responsibility is indicated. The highly important function of recommending teachers for appointment is just such a responsibility. The specialist may argue that he should initiate a recommendation for appointment, as he alone in the system is competent to judge the candidate's technical qualifications for the work of his field. The principal, on the other hand, maintains that the method of appointment should be such as to give the teacher a sense of loyalty to the organization over which he presides. The existence of a joint responsibility here is apparent. The solution suggested is that the specialist certify to the competence of several candidates, any one of whom he would be willing to see appointed, and that the principal make the nomination from such a list. If, in the case of joint responsibility, principal and specialist cannot reach an agreement, either

should be free to take the issue to higher authority. This recourse of the specialist to the superintendent should not be regarded as "going over the head" of the principal. If the principal and specialist are to be on an equal footing as is here proposed, neither stands between the superintendent and the other. The superintendent is the arbitrator of their differences.

Only the largest school systems in the country can justify the employment of a group of specialists whose entire time is devoted to the problems of their respective systems. In a city of 100,000 or over, it is probably desirable that a director of secondary education be employed who would coördinate the activities of the specialist and the principals. He would be chairman of a council on secondary education composed of the principals of all schools of secondary grade and specialists representing every phase of the work of instruction and guidance. Jointly, this group would work out an integrated program for secondary education in that city.

In the medium-sized and small cities, the organization need not be so elaborate. The superintendent of schools or one of the principals (not necessarily the senior high-school principal) might serve as chairman of the council on secondary education. Perhaps only a few fields would justify the employment of full-time specialists. In other fields, a leading teacher might be designated to deal with the problems of the specialist in that field and to represent the field in the council on secondary education. Specialists attached to state departments of education or university schools of education could be employed from time to time in an advisory capacity. The details of the supervisory organization would necessarily vary from community to community. Even the smallest community should make some provision for directing toward common ends, the activities of teachers who, to a marked extent, are necessarily specialists.

The creation of a council on secondary education in which principals and specialists are coördinate does not imply that the strong secondary-school principal will not continue to determine, in large measure, the policies which are adopted. He will prove his strength, however, not by the display of authority, but by the soundness of his points of view and the conviction which they carry.

Functions of Principals and Specialists in the Supervision of Instruction

(This suggestion assumes that principal and specialist are to be coordinate in rank in the school system.)

Principal's Responsibility	Joint Responsibility	Specialist's Responsibility
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Coordinating instruction of all the special fields in the light of general objectives. 2. Preserving an appropriate balance in the attention accorded to the various special fields. 3. Developing a consistent philosophy of education in teachers of all fields. 4. Guiding teachers, particularly inexperienced teachers, in their use of general methods of teaching. 5. Studying pupil needs in general. 6. Studying pupil progress in general. 7. Directing experimentation involving more than one field. 8. Conducting conferences of teachers on problems of general method. 9. Stimulating teachers to improve their understanding of education in general. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Defining the place of the special field in the total program of secondary education, time allotments, etc. 2. Avoiding undesirable overlapping of two or more special fields. 3. Selecting, promoting, and assigning teachers (in so far as delegated). 4. Considering any proposal initiated by either principal or specialist which necessarily implicates the other. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Defining detailed objectives of special field in harmony with general objectives. 2. Selecting appropriate subject matter for courses in special field. 3. Guiding special methods of teaching. 4. Selecting equipment, books, and materials within limits set by general administration. 5. Studying pupil needs in special field. 6. Studying pupil progress in special field. 7. Experimenting in special field. 8. Coordinating instruction in special field between junior and senior high school. 9. Conducting conferences of teachers in special field. 10. Stimulating teachers to extend their mastery of their special field.

Miss Edith Everett, Associate Director, White-Williams Foundation of Philadelphia, read her address, *The Visiting Teacher in the High Schools*.

THE VISITING TEACHER IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

EDITH M. EVERETT,

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PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

When I try to think of how I can make clear to those of you who are only vaguely familiar with the term "visiting teacher" what her function in the school—and particularly in the high school—really is, my mind goes back over the experiences of my early years of high-school teaching, and I am beguiled as I often am, with the vivid memory of one young personality after another, which stands out from the group because of some very definite lack of conformity to the required pattern.

I see Bill Sullivan, a charming Irish youth, destined to be a successful traveling salesman, failing cheerfully three times in succession the work of his first high-school term, regretfully bidding farewell to the baseball team and leaving school for a job. I see Margery, pretty, easy-going, popular with boys and girls alike, cutting her Latin class whenever she saw an opportunity and copying her algebra homework regularly—married at eighteen and divorced two years later. I see Otto, whose older sister was a teacher, his older brother the highest honor student in his class at college. But Otto, the most skilful truant in a club of twenty habitual "baggers," dedicated all his really good intelligence and interest to his effort to get ahead of school rules, and had nothing left for lessons. And there was Vivian, earnest, ambitious, but too serious—often unable, no matter how carefully her lessons were prepared, to say a word in class because of what we thought was extreme shyness. Vivian graduated from college, but has been a nervous invalid for the past two years. These are real people. Their stories are true—so far as they go. Dozens of others pass through my mind, as they passed through my classes, pathetic, amusing, irritating; marked in the daily record book—present or absent—passing or failing—judged by the standards of high-school scholarship, and for the most part found wanting, treated at the best

with kindly sympathetic interest, but never by any chance was their behavior regarded as symptomatic of conditions which challenged intelligent effort at solution.

And then there were the later years, in an administrative position in the same high school—when day after day the office was full of the school non-conformists—sulky or flippant or merely indifferent,—and yet always the most interesting of the high-school population. By this time schools were beginning to wake up to some of their social responsibilities. Intelligence tests were helping us not to expect more proficiency of dull normals than they could give—and helping us to group likes together, and fit the task to the ability of the person upon whom it was imposed. We were all being influenced by the teachings of a new psychology, under the impulse of the mental hygiene campaign. And yet, in spite of the efforts of mental tests, special classes, broader choice of subjects and visits of parents to the school office, some of the Bills continued to fail repeatedly, some of the Margerys to bring in lying excuses, some of the Vivians to be caught in the grip of some obscure inhibition, some of the Ottos to be truant, and a dozen and one other exponents of high-school failure and delinquency, to flourish. For there was still no way of connecting up the experiences and influences of the eighteen daily hours outside the school, with the six short ones spent within its walls.

You will pardon me if I repeat some facts and inferences which must seem very obvious. During those six hours the student meets and recites to five or six different teachers, in subjects which he in varying degrees enjoys, tolerates, or dislikes. He must subordinate his personal interests to the interests and points of attack of each of these different dominating personalities,—a necessity which he meets with success or failure, according to his poise and adaptability. There is little wonder that there are frequent instances of failure to meet successfully this complex situation. Nor is there much to be wondered at in the failure of teachers to understand and help in the adjustment. The average high-school teacher in a large city school—meets from 150 to 200 pupils in a day—in periods of about 45 minutes—and her chief preoccupation must be the necessity for covering in that time a certain required amount of work. Stupidity, flippancy, indifference, insubordination, become unit characters, promptly judged and usually summarily handled. There are two sides to every question—and even those who insist that a good teacher must

think of her pupils as individuals, and should take a scientific attitude toward their performance, must also admit that there are almost insurmountable difficulties in the way of putting such an attitude into practical operation beyond the limits of her classroom contacts. Even the principal and the dean, though free from classroom pressure, are usually too much occupied with administrative duties to go farther than office interviews with pupils and parents. It is to meet the need created by this situation, that many schools are employing a new member of the staff—whose function it is to bring to bear upon the treatment of school failures in either scholarship or behavior a specialized technique of personality study. Whether this person be called a student adviser, as I was, a school counselor as she is called in Philadelphia, a home and school visitor as here in Boston, a director of personnel or a visiting teacher—the most widely used title,—is of little importance in comparison with the definition of her function in the school. Her work does not overlap that of the school nurse, attendance officer or vocational counselor, all of whom have specialized functions dealing with some one phase of the individual pupil. It is more apt to be confused with that of the dean. I have been interested in studying an article in the January 21 number of *School and Society* by Dr. Sarah Sturtevant of Teachers College, on the Dean of Girls in the Secondary School. Dr. Sturtevant is undoubtedly the outstanding authority on this subject. She defines the work of the dean as primarily administrative, concerned with educational guidance and the planning and regulation of extra-curriculum programs, in order that positive social health may be the attribute of all girls. As an additional function she mentions the personal adjustment of girls by the intelligent diagnosis of special problems and states that this adjustment requires the skill of the trained social worker to handle (it). I should add two other elements, without which skill, in this difficult task of re-education, can accomplish little—those other elements are time and freedom from routine duties.

Through the offices of principal and dean, of physical training director and of vocational counselor, sift those cases—fortunately a minority of the whole high-school population, whose difficulties stubbornly refuse to yield to the treatment which can be provided within the four walls of the school.

May we go back to truant Otto for illustration of just what I

mean—Otto was the youngest of three children. His parents were German with old world ideas of authority and respect due to elders. His father, once a successful business man, had become a helpless exacting invalid before Otto entered high school. The older children had grown up comfortably and had done well in school. Otto, the youngest boy, was the mother's baby. He had been always indulged and had been the object of his mother's chief attention. Suddenly, just at his adolescence; the scene changed. The invalid father claimed the mother's care; without his business to think about, the father turned his attention to Otto and was bitterly critical of his spoiled child ways in the home. The sister, a teacher, nagged about study and table manners. The successful brother was constantly both at home and at school held up as a model of whom Otto was proud, but whom he also secretly hated. Although fifteen years old physically, in his emotional development he was only a baby. He had never had any chance or encouragement to grow up. School routine irked him—he had no normal, healthy athletic interests; he was a coward physically, and so he developed a skill in evasion—he ran away from everything unpleasant—not having the courage to rebel openly he became a liar and a cheat. Having no outlet in healthy constructive activity he spent his time with a gang, secretly smoking and reveling in the reading and telling of obscene stories from cheap periodicals—getting even, in his poor fumbling way, with the adult world that had suddenly turned against him. You will ask—what could a visiting teacher do in such a case?

With time at her disposal, and the skill which comes from training and experience—for both of these are essential to success in any effort to help such a boy find himself, she set herself to the study of the boy as the school knew him. The psychologist's record indicated normal intelligence—quite adequate for mastery of high-school subjects. The medical record was negative. Only one teacher, however, had anything good to say of his accomplishments. In his English work he showed spasmodic interest and effort—especially in composition, which was original and well-expressed. Then Otto was invited into the little office which the visiting teacher had found essential for the successful carrying on of interviews with her boys and girls. At first, of course, he was suspicious. But he failed to find any ground for keeping up the suspicion. There was no scolding—no lecturing. The cards were on the table—good and bad—

school reports, attendance record, psychologist's and doctor's reports—and Otto was invited to discuss them. That was uncomfortable—he didn't know how to do it. But slowly—little by little—after several talks, beginning with the English, he began to respond to this method of thinking of himself objectively. Being treated like a grown up person was a new experience—very reassuring to his adolescent vanity, and almost before he knew it he was talking about himself—and his family—revealing attitudes and feelings that he had hardly known he had. Then, with his knowledge and agreement, the visiting teacher called on his father and mother and tried by showing her interest and belief in him, to make them a little proud of him—a little tolerant and gradually a little ready to trust him. Slowly there grew out of his sense of being one with his family, not an outcast from it, a self-respect which left him free to win for himself the respect of the school. For always that is what the visiting teacher has as her aim.

She is in the school to help insure that every child may have equal chance to profit by the educational facilities offered. The misfit, the inadequate and misunderstood are not to be coddled and wheel-chaired, but to be helped to find and use the tools of self-assurance, pride and competency. She is by training, interest and function, a specialist in personality study and adjustment, as a psychiatric social worker is, but always in relation to preparing the boy and girl in whom she is interested, to fit into the social institution of which he and she are parts in order that it may function successfully so far as they are concerned. To this end, as I have said before, she must have her time and responsibility quite free to devote to interviews with what we might call her patients, with psychologist and teachers, to visit their homes, to get in touch with community resources for recreation, medical or psychiatric care as needed. She cannot carry any other responsibilities which will interfere with this major function:—Necessarily because of the delicacy and difficulty of the task of changing attitudes and habits built up over all the years of infancy and childhood, she must work slowly and cannot undertake intensive work with a great many boys and girls at a time.

As to the kind of skill required, there are I think, three major factors involved. First, are personality qualities; openness, simplicity, and sincerity—an ability to make people feel at home, a positive tolerance and understanding are some of the qualities which count

heavily toward success. With the adolescent particularly, a person with a keen but kindly sense of humor and a poise which makes it possible for her to listen and wait, will make most headway.

As to previous professional experience, nothing counts more than successful teaching. Those of us who have been watching the work of visiting teachers carefully in order to evaluate standards of success have learned to be wary of the teacher who is tired of her job and wants a change, or who for some reason has not been successful in it. The best visiting teacher is the one who knows about teaching, is professionally up to date, and cares about it intensely in terms of boys and girls. And as to special training—first and foremost, there should be a thorough grounding in the psychology of human behavior—by which I do not mean behavioristic psychology—but the kind of understanding of the development of personality which is being so widely taught and written by the mental hygienists. Especially should the visiting teacher in the high school use every opportunity to keep up to date in regard to the psychology of adolescents, knowledge of the science of social case work and close association with the social resources of her community—religious, recreational and health—are also essential to her training.

The secondary schools have accomplished wonderful adjustments in the past ten years to meet the new burdens placed upon them. We have accepted the responsibility of providing special facilities for pupils of varying kinds and degrees of intelligence, of fitting for citizenship, and home membership and worthy use of leisure, of providing vocational information and guidance. There is only one group neglected in our scheme—those whose life experience has left them so emotionally insecure or unadjusted that they are forced to adopt patterns of behavior quite inadequate to meet the social demands of the high school. It is to help them to grow up emotionally, so that they may be equipped with the well-integrated personality which alone can fit them with tools adequate to carry on in this rapidly changing civilization, that the visiting teacher in the high school finds her vocation.

Vice President, Jessie M. Hamilton, Principal of Morey Junior High School, Denver, Colorado, presided over the Junior High School section, which met in the Ball Room at 9 A. M., Tuesday, February 28, 1928.

Mr. Joseph F. Gonnelly, District Superintendent of Schools of Chicago, read his paper, *The Rating of Teachers by Supervisors*.

RATING OF TEACHERS BY SUPERVISORS

JOSEPH F. GONNELLY,

DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT IN CHARGE OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS,
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

Who Are Supervisors?—The topic as stated leads immediately to the question: "Who are supervisors?" The answer given in this paper will include three types of school workers in this category; viz., the school principal; the school superintendent including assistant superintendents; and supervisors of special subjects. The school principal is embraced in this classification because his major function is supervision. It is true that he has administrative and clerical duties also; but these occupations are of considerably less importance than is that of supervision. A business executive and a person trained in office practice can, conceivably, do a good job of administering the work of a school and compiling necessary records and reports; but the work of supervision requires ability and power that come only through professional education and experience. The principal who allows administrative and office routine to absorb his energies and time, so that the vital work of supervision suffers, is guilty of a serious professional error.

The district, assistant, and general superintendent are comprehended in the list of supervisors because, although much of their work must necessarily be of an administrative character (dealing with sites, building plans, choice of teachers, textbooks, school equipment, supplies, etc.); still the chief reason for the existence of all these officials is supervision; i.e., improvement of instruction. The superintendent can, because his territory is more extensive than is that of the school principal, advise with the latter on ways of bringing about improvement in teachers whose work is not satisfactory in certain particulars.

He can recommend visits to be made by these teachers to other schools where an outstanding piece of work in mathematics, science, English, a foreign language, or what not may be observed. He may arrange for a school clinic at which teaching under ordinary conditions is performed by one instructor and noted by many teachers of the subject, either accompanied or followed by a full and free discussion of the excellencies or defects revealed. Because the superintendent comes into contact with many schools and teachers, his criticism of the teacher will probably be less influenced by local considerations than is that of the school principal. On the other hand, the superintendent's estimate of the teacher will be, to some extent, less valid than is that of the school principal; because the latter will have the opportunity of daily, intimate contact with the classroom work and a more sympathetic understanding of local problems.

The third type of supervisor referred to in this paper is the man or woman who supervises special subjects; e.g., commercial work, technical shops, art, music, household arts, and the like. The special supervisor should be freed from practically all administrative work to devote all his resources of education and experience to the improvement of instruction in the schools. He should have first hand knowledge of the teacher's stumbling stones through having risen from the ranks. Many times the anomalous situation is presented of a person attempting to oversee a subject; e.g., art; when the supervisor has had no experience in teaching *that* subject, or any other, to pupils under ordinary classroom conditions. Such a person can, of course, do little to aid a teacher who is in distress; because he does not, from first-hand contact, know why the teacher is failing or in what particular. The well-trained special supervisor can, however, contribute points of view and assistance that are unattainable by either the school principal or the superintendent. It seems wise, therefore, that three types of supervisors—school principal, superintendent, and special supervisors should participate, perhaps in varying degrees and in different modes, in the rating of teachers.

Why Rate Teachers?—The next problem to be examined in this paper is that of why teachers should be rated. The reasons for such rating may be stated as follows:

1. That instruction may be improved.
2. That supervision may be more intelligent and more effective.

3. That hopelessly weak teachers may be separated from the educational system.
4. That promotion may be based upon merit rather than upon personal preference.
5. That teachers may be furnished with a rational urge for development professionally.

A brief discussion may serve to elucidate these points. The chief *raison d'être* of teachers, school principals, special supervisors, and superintendents is the placing of instruction upon a higher plane. How will rating of teachers promote this desirable design?

It will do this by inducing and compelling all the persons mentioned in the sentence preceding the last to analyze more solicitously and more heedfully the teaching process. Such rating implies, of course, conscientious and faithful endeavor on the part of all concerned. It purposes that the various supervisors mentioned in the early part of this paper shall make numerous visits to the teachers rated; shall record data secured on these visits; shall hold individual and group conferences with teachers; shall invite and solicit suggestions from the teachers; and shall, finally, in every way possible seek to instigate an analytical point of view with regard to classroom procedure so that the causes and circumstances of excellent work may be discovered and made habitual, and that the sources and conditions of unsatisfactory work may be understood and eliminated. When the problem of teacher-rating is approached in such an impersonal, objective fashion; when the teachers are led to realize that the rating of their efforts is not directed against them; but that they and the supervisors are engaged in a coöperative effort to determine the technique of efficient instruction—then, and then only will systems of rating teachers be viewed as valuable and worthy, and not as means for teacher intimidation.

It is the obligation of the supervisors to coördinate and systematize the work of the various classroom teachers. This coördination can be secured only by the observance of two vital stipulations: first, all programs of supervision should be carried out through the office of the school principal; secondly, the program should be expounded and defined to the classroom teachers in order that they may coöperate wholeheartedly and intelligently in carrying out the program. This intelligent coöperation of teachers in the supervisor's program

can be carried out more competently and effectively if teachers and supervisors have collaborated in analyzing the teaching process and in formulating and executing a rating scheme for teachers. The supervisor who gives a teacher a rating of *satisfactory* rather than a rating of *excellent*, should have given the work of that teacher a very searching scrutiny. He should have led the teacher to try out various methods and devices in the effort to improve and enhance instruction and to rectify errors. In this way, the supervisor's insight into and his discernment of his own problems are also deepened. The case is similar with respect to excellent or superior teaching. Oftentimes a teacher is unable to repeat a piece of splendid teaching because of his failure to note the principles involved. The supervisor should be able to "set" in the teacher's mind the principles and modes of procedure that make for superior teaching.

That supervisor is a good supervisor who stimulates teachers to undertake new types of work. Such effort keeps the teacher from degenerating into the "day-laborer" attitude, and leads him to greater professional growth and enthusiasm. Full and free discussion of teacher-rating by supervisors and teachers will tend to develop friendlier feeling, more democratic supervision, and more effective instruction.

It is probably true that in every system there is a small number of persons employed in classrooms who are totally unfitted by nature, education, professional equipment, or personality to teach effectively. Such a person should, of course, be separated from the system as speedily and as painlessly as possible. The supervisor should, however, be sure that the person so handicapped cannot, by encouragement and guidance, be developed into a satisfactory teacher. The supervisor should hold in mind that those who know little readily pronounce judgment, and that the truly scrupulous supervisor will recommend separation of a teacher from the system only as a last resort and after every means to promote improvement has been tried and found to be futile. The teacher should be led to locate persistent errors and the reason for these errors as well as remedial work designed to alleviate the situation. If the case remains hopeless, dismissal from the service should be recommended by the supervisor. Most teachers fail because their discipline is weak; their power to instruct is poor; their personality is colorless; or they lack interest in their work. Sometimes these deficiencies exist in such degree that

no remedial work can be successful. The person simply is not a teacher and cannot be assisted in becoming a teacher.

Not much discussion is needed, it is to be hoped, to establish the thesis that rating of teachers may be used to secure promotion of the more valuable teachers. This will be of value in two ways: first, the higher position will then be filled by a competently trained person; secondly, other teachers will feel the urge to put forth their best efforts and to develop professionally to the maximum of their potentialities.

How Rate Teachers?—The third problem set the writer of this paper is how teachers shall be rated. Shall teacher efficiency be defined in terms of the teacher's own qualities, or in terms of results achieved by his pupils? The latter plan might seem, on first thought, to be preferable in that it could be made specific, factual, objective. If this method of rating were to be used, certain facts should be heeded; viz., the length of time the pupils have been with the teacher; what their achievements were at the beginning and at the close of this teacher's instruction; what outside influences affect their work, and similar considerations. If such safeguards are observed, this plan has value; but it needs to be supplemented by the sane opinions of wise leaders. In any event, the supervisor should avoid uncertain, unrecognizable, and unmeasurable values. The supervisor should visit, record the observations and suggestions made by him, and visit again and again. The rating finally given to the teacher should be the summation of these visits.

Various plans have been suggested for rating teachers. Usually they have comprehended the following points: teaching technique, classroom management, personality, professional attitude, and results. Each of these is usually subdivided into several subheadings. Teaching technique, for example, is concerned with knowledge of subject matter, definition of aims, skill in organizing discussion, expertness in making assignments and in formulating questions, ability to train pupils in correct study habits, and similar matters.

Classroom management deals with discipline, routine factors, neatness of room, care of light, heat, and ventilation, and like topics. Personality includes such considerations as initiative, health, appearance, reliability, industry, enthusiasm, tact, voice, honesty, etc. Professional attitude involves academic and pedagogical preparation,

understanding of pupils, spirit of coöperation, professional interest and growth, daily preparation, and so on. Results comprise growth of pupils in subject-matter, general development, attention of pupils, moral influence, etc.,

It is evident that opinion enters into the rating of teachers on certain characteristics cited in the foregoing paragraph. To guard against this possible weakness, it would be well to have more than one supervisor participate in rating the teacher; the efficiency rating should be the outcome of several visits made to the teacher; and finally the highest awards should be accorded those teachers who possess dynamic characteristics such as originality and the power of self-development. Thus, the supervisor can refute the argument that supervision and rating of teachers make for imitation and sycophancy and tend to crush originality and individuality. Teaching efficiency exists—it exists in varying degrees in different persons—it can be measured or at least estimated by conscientious supervisors. The rating of teachers should be regarded as a very serious matter—not something to be undertaken in a sketchy, temperamental manner.

Each Supervisor's Part in Teacher-Rating.—The fourth and last problem to be considered here is the part to be taken in rating teachers by each type of supervisor mentioned; viz., school principal, superintendents, and special supervisor.

It probably is not desirable that each of these supervisors should turn in efficiency ratings for all teachers. The school principal should record the efficiency rating of all teachers in his building. He should, as a matter of course, utilize the insight into the technique of teaching possessed by the special supervisor and the broader point of view possessed by the superintendent.

The school principal is well-fitted and strategically located to rate his teachers on such points as personality, class room management, and professional attitude. He should be able to secure fairly reliable answers to such questions as the following: "Does the teacher possess initiative and originality? Is he loyal to the school and enthusiastic in coöperation? Is he studious? Is he industrious? Is he gifted with tact and self-control? Does he possess a sense of humor? Is his general appearance commendable? Does his discipline result in growth of his pupils in self-control? Is he able and willing to carry out suggestions? Is he well-versed in modern educational move-

ments? Are his pupils active and orderly in carrying out their projects?"

In matters of skill in teaching and results of teaching effort, the special supervisors can lend valuable assistance to the school principal in the rating of teachers. By the coöperative efforts of these two supervisors, fairly adequate data may be advanced with reference to the following: "Does the teacher know the subject-matter of his own and related fields? Does he clearly define the aims of instruction to himself and to his pupils? Are the lessons and exercises well planned to carry out these aims? Is he systematic in preparing questions and spontaneous in propounding them? Is he resourceful in organizing projects and discussions? Is he gifted in stimulating his pupils to formulate suitable questions? Does he prepare carefully for the new material by insuring the bringing in of relevant past experiences on the part of the pupils? Does he exhibit skill in conducting snappy drills? Do all members of the class participate in questioning or any other activity of the class? Is he able to train his pupils in correct study and work habits? Does he show skill in making assignments? Does he know the minds of the learners—their powers of comprehension—their individual differences—their difficulties? Does he succeed in getting optimum results?" In securing answers to such queries, the special supervisor's intimate knowledge of the subject and methods of teaching will be found most helpful.

The superintendent should assist in rating the efficiency of teachers who are deemed by the school principal to be, on the one hand, on the borderline of inefficiency, or, on the other hand, to be nearing the highest degree of efficiency. In the one case, the superintendent can assist in deciding whether or not the teacher should be recommended for dismissal; in the other case, he can help determine whether or not the teacher merits promotion. Because of the superintendent's broader field of operations, he may be able to judge a teacher's efficiency more justly than can the school principal. The superintendent may recognize the fact that the teacher, whom the school principal considers inefficient, may be doing as good work as are teachers in another school who receive the mark, *satisfactory*. On the other hand, a teacher, whom the principal considers *superior*, may in fact not deserve that rating when compared with excellent teachers in nearby schools.

Summary.—1. The three types of supervisors should be concerned in rating teacher-efficiency—the school principal, the special supervisor, and the superintendent.

2. Teachers should be rated to secure improvement of instruction and supervision; to provide for the elimination of teachers who are hopelessly unfit; to facilitate promotion for merit; and finally to stimulate teachers to develop professionally.

3. Teacher rating should be based partly upon the teacher's own qualities and partly upon the results achieved by his pupils.

4. The school principal should turn in the efficiency rating of the teacher, assisted in such aspects of the work as teaching technique, and results by the special supervisor. The superintendent should lend assistance in rating teachers who are either very good or very poor.

The Place of the Teacher in Curriculum Revision was presented without notes by Superintendent of Schools, A. L. Threlkeld, Denver, Colorado.

THE PLACE OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER IN CURRICULUM REVISION

A. L. THRELKELD,

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLORADO

The teacher-pupil situation should be the focal point for any program of curriculum revision. Curriculum revision should begin and end here. In other words, curriculum construction is the problem of the teacher as he faces the pupil who is to learn. From the point of view of the schools it is primarily the teacher's problem. This is a problem made up in terms of pupil nature, social inheritance, and the needs of present life. Around this problem centers all which can actually be called a curriculum revision program.

Principal, supervisor, research expert, all must participate if the best possible pupil-learning situation is to be created. They are essential but they should be thought of as extensions of the teacher. The teacher must reach out to the principal, to the supervisor, to various specialists for the contributions which they severally can make to the problem which he faces. No modern teacher can be sufficient unto

himself. He must rely upon what has been contributed by research investigations wherever they may have occurred; he must rely upon the expert study of method which principal and supervisor have made; he must rely upon the social service of the attendance department; the visiting teacher; the health service of the medical and physical education departments; and various other special agencies which in a modern school system are now at the command of the teacher who knows how to use them. In a school system having a department of curriculum revision the teacher must rely upon the director of this department for assistance in the procuring of curriculum materials for the classroom situation, such a director working through and with teacher committees and all others involved. Whether these materials are furnished in a printed course of study, in several such courses, or in any other way are details which may be changed from time to time as conditions warrant. The essential point of view here being presented is that the teacher facing the pupil who is to learn is the center of the process. Curriculum revision begins and ends right here.

Obviously this point of view demands that all who are in a position to contribute to the learning process of the pupil participate in the construction of the curriculum. This participation begins when the classroom teacher is actively interested in contributing to the growth of his pupils. This interest reaches out in various directions as indicated above. To the extent that it does reach out have we a sound basis for the very important contributions which the experts of various types referred to above are in a position to make. Their insights and knowledges cannot be forced into this learning process. They must come in response to a felt need. Coming in response to such a need, they serve their true purpose. In this situation, that which they have to contribute actually functions.

Looking at it from this point of view it is clear that a curriculum revision program cannot be measured in terms of what is found between the covers of printed courses of study. Such an examination would tell only part of the story. The most vital thing would be left out of consideration; namely, to what extent is this course of study genuinely accepted by the teacher as an important help in his teaching? In the first place, does he understand what is in the course of study and does he accept it as being appropriate to his task? No course of study, from a practical point of view, is worth any more

to a school system than the extent to which it actually results in growth on the part of the pupils. It cannot be judged apart from this.

Then quite aside from what may have been worked out in research laboratories, quite aside from what may now be the best theory which students of education possess, no curriculum revision program can succeed if it is limited to a consideration of these sources of material. If the active participation of the classroom teacher is left out of the plan, the whole structure is superficial and will amount to nothing.

The purpose of this brief paper is not to make the impression that supervisors, principals, curriculum experts, research investigators are not important as compared to the teacher. To repeat, they are essential. The conception here being presented is that their functionings are the reachings out for help of the teacher. Without the intelligent reachings out of the teacher, they are impotent. All are part of one process which centers in the teacher-pupil situation.

Practical ways by which this point of view may be worked out in a school system involve a discussion of teacher committees, when and how they shall work, how they shall be related to principal, supervisor, curriculum specialist, and the like, but the topic of this paper is the place of the teacher in a curriculum revision program. Therefore nothing more than a mere statement of this place is here attempted.

Mr. Joseph Roemer, Professor of Secondary School Education of the University of Florida presented his paper, *Introducing an Extra-Curriculum Activities Program*.

INTRODUCING AN EXTRA-CURRICULUM ACTIVITIES PROGRAM

JOSEPH ROEMER,

PROFESSOR OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

AND

HIGH-SCHOOL VISITOR, UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

Perhaps there is no phase of secondary education that calls for special training and leadership so much as the extra-curriculum activities program. Not only does it require that the principal and faculty

have specific training in the aims, functions, and activities of such a program, but real leadership is necessary to carry through anything like a real, vigorous, constructive piece of work; consequently, it is the opinion of the writer that in trying to do anything of value with the high school along the line of extra-curriculum activities the place to begin is with the faculty. Unless the faculty has the definite training, appreciative background, and wholehearted attitude with willingness to coöperate thoroughly in a program, the project is a failure from the beginning; but with a trained principal with strong leadership and a coöperative faculty, there are untold possibilities in this field.

During the scholastic year of 1926-27 the writer had an experience with the Memorial Junior High School of Tampa, Florida, which he feels is of enough significance to illustrate the possibilities in this field when properly understood and attempted.

Tampa, Florida, is a city of approximately 200,000 people. It has four junior high schools operating and one under construction, beside two large senior high schools. The Memorial Junior High School, the one concerned in this study, is one of the four junior high schools mentioned above. It had at the time of this experiment a student body of 1500 pupils of grades 7, 8, and 9 and a faculty of approximately 40 members. It had the regular routine work of an academic nature found in the ordinary junior high school. Besides this there was the usual work in home economics, manual arts, music, drawing, and commerce. In the closing days of the preceding school term the building was completed and the pupils transferred to it just a few days before the end of the term; consequently, the principal, J. W. Compton, used the first semester of his next school term for the purpose of amalgamating and cementing, as it were, his pupil body into one organic whole. The pupils came to this building from fourteen ward schools, three private schools, and several rural schools in the adjoining vicinity. As a result there was brought together a very heterogeneous group to begin with. At the close of his first semester the principal felt that he had solidified his school and that it had settled down to the routine of work well enough for him to begin a constructive program of extra-curriculum activities. After a conference with the writer on details, Principal Compton arranged with the faculty for six three-hour faculty meetings on six consecutive Saturday afternoons from 2:00 to 5:00 o'clock. There was a distinct understanding

between the principal and his faculty that the purpose of these extended faculty meetings was to make an intensive study of the matter of student activities with the express purpose of organizing a program that would fit their school and introduce such parts of it as were advisable during that spring semester; consequently, there was a most wholesome attitude on the part of the faculty from the very beginning and a clear understanding as to the purpose of the meetings.

In order to educate his patrons the principal went before the Parent Teacher's Association and explained to them in detail what he was proposing to do with the faculty and requested their coöperation and interest. The Parent Teacher's Association very wholeheartedly endorsed the program and very generously agreed to bear the largest share of the financial burden for the faculty. It was arranged among the mothers of the Parent Teacher's Association so that a large percentage of them attended each of the conferences or classes that were held. In this way when the program was over, the mothers of the school had about as firm a grip and as intelligent an understanding of the whole project as did the faculty, because many of the parents came regularly and did a large share of the assigned readings in order to get the most out of the study.

To make each meeting count for the greatest good, the writer and the principal agreed upon the following topics for discussion during the six meetings that followed.

TOPICS

1. (a) Aims and Functions of an Extra-Curriculum Activities Program.
(b) The Faculty's Part in Such a Program.
2. Home Room
3. Club Program
4. Assemblies
5. Publications
6. Student Participation in School Control
7. Thrift Program
8. Health Program

Through the coöperation of the City Superintendent of Schools, the County Superintendent of Schools and the Director of High

Schools, copies of all the books at the time in print in the field of extra-curriculum activities were purchased for the high-school library and put at the disposal of the teachers. A great deal of additional collateral reading was added to the library temporarily through the General Extension Division of the University of Florida under whose auspices the work was carried on.

As a preparation for the first meeting definite assignments were made and placed in each teacher's mail box. In this way the whole faculty came to the first meeting prepared for an intelligent group discussion of the topic in hand.

In order to make the work most effective the forty teachers were divided up into groups of approximately five persons to a group. This was arrived at by asking each teacher to select the topic that she most prefer working on as a member of a group. It just so happened that each group was approximately the same size. Each group was asked to be responsible for its report at one meeting. The groups organized and elected their chairmen and began a definite study of their topics. As a piece of good luck it so happened again that the first committee to report did an unusually good piece of work. The report consisted of six mimeographed pages. This was worked out and placed in each teacher's box two days before the meeting. When the group met the report was thoroughly familiar to every person and it was largely the work of the instructor to head up the discussion and to direct the thinking and working of the group during the three-hour period. From the very beginning the meetings were stimulating in the extreme. The second committee report was equally as good and again early distribution of it made it possible for each teacher to study the report before coming to the class. This was the procedure for the entire six three-hour-group meetings which were held.

To summarize or to pull together in final form the entire work of the course the principal and assistant principal together with the chairman of each of the eight groups, acted as a general committee to take all eight of the reports and unify them into one which was to be the basis of the administrative machinery in the new project. At each of the eight group meetings before the discussion was closed the entire faculty agreed upon the details of the organization of that particular topic that would be appropriate and adaptable to their local school situation. Consequently, the general committee referred to above

merely had to take these committee reports and their findings and schedule them into one general working program. Frequently the discussion waxed warm among the teachers as to the advisability of certain points of administration in some of the reports but the whole matter was worked entirely upon a democratic basis with the majority rule operating in every instance.

To conclude the project and get it reduced to a working basis thoroughly understood by both patrons and teachers, the following program was used to close the work. At this program the large percentage of the members of the Parent Teacher's Association were present and listened to the discussion.

PROGRAM

2:00 to 5:00 P.M.

THEME: TRAINING IN CITIZENSHIP

- I. Greetings.
- II. Teaching Citizenship:
 - (a) Through a thrift program inaugurated in Memorial Junior High School.
 - (b) Through a better health program operating in Memorial Junior High School.
 - (c) By so organizing Memorial Junior High School as to convert it into a laboratory for practice in developing right habits and attitudes of proper conduct.
 - (d) Through a club program that develops the best social, moral and intellectual side of children joyfully participating in it.
 - (e) By making the Home Room, *home*.
- III. How the P. T. A. can assist in furthering such a program (by President of P. T. A.).
- IV. Echo from the Director of High Schools.
- V. Address by Instructor (Summary of Course).
- VI. Refreshments Served by P. T. A.
- VII. Adjournment.

It was the purpose of the above program to show how the whole matter of high-school training gathers around the central thought of

training for citizenship. This idea is evident by a careful reading of the program that was rendered.

Immediately upon closing the work of the course, the general committee referred to above, began its work of programming a line of activities that would be adaptable to the school. The work of the committee was completed and time was left for one or two general faculty meetings on it before the closing of the school year. When the school opened up for the fall semester of 1927-28 it was fortunate in losing only a few of the faculty members of the previous year; consequently, the principal and assistant principal were able to begin shortly after the school opened in the fall the inauguration of the student activities program that had been worked out the previous year.

In planning a really substantial extra-curriculum activities program the principal felt keenly that all pupil activities must be dignified and programmed as other curriculum activities. He recognized the fact that the social and moral training resulting from such a procedure was just as essential and just as valuable as that from any other phase of school training.

• Acting upon this philosophy he provided in his daily schedule one regular period a day to be known as "Activities period." By so doing he was enabled to organize, systematize, and program every desirable student activity of the school. Below is his program in his daily schedule:

Monday—Clubs

Tuesday—Home Room (Citizenship Work)

Wednesday—Assembly (Half of School)

Thursday—Home Room (Health Work)

Friday—Assembly (Other Half of School)

In her work in clubs, citizenship, and health each teacher used as her guide and reference the full, mimeographed report prepared by the Committee when the special study work was being done in the beginning. This report, consequently, served not only to direct the teachers but in a large measure to unify the work of the various home rooms. The citizenship and health work was done by home room teachers as the program indicates.

Thoroughly inoculated with the idea that any dynamic student activities program must in the final analysis be carried by the faculty, the principal set up a faculty committee of five, with the principal and

vice principal ex-officio, which acts as an advisory board on all extra-curriculum activities. This Committee meets weekly and spends considerable time in studying the problems that arise and in advising with the principal as to the administrative and supervisory phases of them. In this way the whole project is participated in to the fullest extent by the faculty.

By the end of the fall semester an activities program had been launched and developed to a most satisfactory stage. In October appeared the first issue of a weekly school paper; in December an excellent handbook appeared; a home room organization took form in the early fall; a very satisfactory system of pupil participation in school control is getting well under way; and practically all the assemblies are now in the hands of the pupils. In coöperation with a local bank a strong thrift program is being developed; and finally a club program of a most pleasing sort is coming along well. At present there are forty-one clubs in operation. Enough has been said to show the reader that real progress is being made in organizing and launching a student program of a substantial nature on a sound basis.

In planning his program from the very start the principal saw that the first step was to "sell" his faculty the big idea; and secondly to take his P. T. A. into his plans and educate the parent along with his faculty. This done he would then be ready to begin work with his pupils. Finally in laying his plans and arranging his program he so managed that every teacher was enabled to work out the particular thing in which she was most interested and thus to find the supreme joy that comes only to one lost in the enthusiasm of her task.

An informal discussion from the floor followed.

Mr. Harold E. Warner of Hine Junior High School, Washington, D. C., read his paper, *The Place of Research in the Secondary School*.

THE PLACE OF RESEARCH IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

HAROLD ELLSWORTH WARNER,

PRINCIPAL OF HINE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL,

WASHINGTON, D. C.

I. Definition of Research.—The U. S. Bureau of Education has published a most helpful little pamphlet of aid to those who would en-

gage in research in the field of secondary education, entitled "An Outline of Methods of Research, with Suggestions for High-School Principals and Teachers" (Bulletin No. 24, 1926). In this pamphlet, research is defined as "not merely a search for truth; it involves a systematic, purposeful search for truth" (pg. 3). And again "All sustained, systematic investigation or inquiry which seeks facts or their application is, then, research. Although investigations and inquiries concerning educational procedure are largely inductive, reflective studies that result in new applications of established principles may be included under the term educational research. Any testing of educational beliefs or theories by their consistency with ascertainable facts is research" (pg. 5).

The key words in an adequate definition of research investigation seem then to be *systematic* and *facts*. Research is the effort, by systematic investigation, to substitute facts for opinions, expert or other.

II. *The Need for Research.*—The need for research—continuous research—is inherent in the very spirit and purposes of 20th century education. During the latter portion of the 19th century, when secondary-school enrollments were comparatively small, and school populations more homogeneous, it was thought satisfactory to provide "a common education which gave intellectual power through general discipline, acquired through struggle with logically organized academic subject matter, which power would, through transfer, enable the individual to apply his 'learning' to any life situation."* Education in these terms required little research.

The newer concepts of educational purpose involve many projects calling for continuous research. Education for citizenship calls for conduct curricula which wait upon adult activity analysis. The newer revelations of educational psychology centering in the "specific nature of learning, and individual differences of ability to learn, etc.†—demand the continuous use and application of inductive science.

The need for research is also inherent in the spirit of up-to-date teaching method. Only in so far as teaching is put on the basis of continuous research does it become professional. The good teacher, like the good physician, must be continuously making a case study of

*U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 26 (1927) pg. 4.

†Ibid., pg. 2.

each pupil and each pupil group under her direction. She will carry them home in her thought at night, saying: "I tried this method to-day; but tomorrow I have a plan of attack that will, I hope, produce better results"—and so forth.

E. M. Paulu, in the very selection of his book title: "Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching" has, in my judgment, hit upon a marvelous slogan and epitome of the modern teaching spirit.

In Minneapolis some teachers of English in the Commercial High School ran a series of "Stenographer-Wanted" advertisements and then checked-up on the English expression of the replies received. Kind of a mean trick to play on the applicants—but an excellent illustration of the research spirit—*getting the facts*.

A friend of mine, teaching commercial methods at the Columbia University summer school is about to present a topic that will cover two or three days in discussion. Before presenting the topic at all, he gives a true-false test covering the entire topic to be given. After having presented and discussed the topic, he gives the same—or a similar—true-false test again, and compares the results. That's the research spirit. But how much more of it we need. How generally, alas, do we set up a curriculum with certain objectives, and then provide little or no really scientific test procedure to find out whether the objectives are being realized.

III. *The Technic of Research*.—Regarding the technic of research the U. S. Bureau of Education's *Outline of Methods** tells us that "In general, the steps in research are the same as those in any process of reasoning. They are as follows:

1. The formulation of the problem
2. The assembly of relevant data
3. The critical analysis of data
4. The development of an hypothesis or possible solution
5. Testing the validity of the hypothesis or verification."

"A problem carefully stated is more than half solved." Great care is of course necessary in the assembly of data. Whether objective or subjective, data to be of value must be accurate, the best obtainable and relevant to the problem under investigation. This means first-hand inquiry—actual contact with facts.

*Ibid., pg. 5.

In forming the hypothesis or tentative conclusion it is important that the mind be freed from prejudice—pre-judgment—so that “un-influenced by tradition or personal bias, the tentative conclusion may be the result of the data obtained.”—That is, if the investigator wants to discover truth. Sometimes, alas, I fear that there have been investigators who really have not wanted to know the truth—they have sought instead, argumentative support for some cherished opinion. Do we need an illustration? Turn to page 62 of the 26th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (1926) and read Dr. Harold Rugg’s critical evaluation of the Classical Investigation of 1921–5.

He says: “The General Report of the Classical Investigation is, therefore, a conspicuous illustration of the use of facts to substantiate one’s point of view.” Then after stating that the investigation had been conducted in a very scientific fashion and had accumulated a wealth of objective data, Dr. Rugg concludes: “But instead of using the facts to consider whether and to what extent Latin should be taught, they resorted to special pleading for the retention of Latin in the schools.”

The report of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements (1920–1923) is hinted at as having been of the same tenor: “Both committees, mathematics and classics, made much use of the problem of ‘transfer of training’ Let us consider how they studied one of the major curriculum questions of mental discipline: Does the study of high school Latin (or mathematics) as now constituted increase one’s ability to ‘think’? There is only one way by which this question can be answered definitely—by the careful measurement of the ability of a very large group of high-school pupils to ‘think’ before and after they have had instruction on the subject in question. Did either of the committees undertake to do this? *They did not.*”

“Professor E. L. Thorndike did, however. He showed by measuring carefully the ability of 900 tenth-grade pupils before and after taking a year of Latin that one year’s study of Latin as now organized does increase one’s ability to reason—by a small amount—but that the gain is no larger than that due to the study of other school subjects as now organized. It is of great importance to find, for example, that book-keeping, cooking, and sewing increase one’s ability to generalize *even more* in some instances than does the study of the classics!

"Did the classic committee discuss the Thorndike investigation? It did—in two sentences. After referring to the fact that the study was made, it says that 'the study shows that the amount of growth produced by certain school subjects in the ability measured by this test varies so slightly that no definite conclusions can be drawn therefrom.'

"Here is a conspicuous instance of the refusal of the committee to consider impartially the facts of objective investigations. Is not the very fact that Latin made no greater contribution in a year to the thinking power of pupils than did commercial or social studies, a 'definite conclusion' of importance to the curriculum-maker? Can there be any doubt?

"Instead of utilizing the Thorndike investigation, the committee collected the judgments of 70 psychologists, following out the program of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements, as to whether, in their judgment, training transfers."

Let us as educators *get the facts*, but when we have them, let us use them fearlessly in the best interests of the boys and girls so that we may, if possible, never become subjects for such an embarrassing criticism as that which I have just quoted.

IV. *Preparation for Research*.—B. R. Buckingham, in his *Research for Teachers* mentions the following six types of understanding that the teacher should have who would engage in research:

He should understand:

1. The statistical meaning and use of educational record forms
2. The numerical treatment of educational facts
3. Filing and indexing
4. The statistics of average, variation and of relationship (correlation)
5. Types, use and the handling of score sheets of standardized tests—intelligence and educational
6. Preparation and use of new type examinations* (short-answer; true-false, etc.)

*In this connection Paterson's "Preparation and use of new type examinations" (World Book Co. 1926), has been of estimable aid to my faculty.

S. A. Courtis in an article on "The development of ability in research"* sums up the qualifications of a research worker as follows: He must have:

1. Drive
2. Efficiency
3. Volitional-control
4. Certain general powers such as, independence in thought
5. Certain convictions such as, those of evolution, and of cause and effect.

If we wait for the individual who fits all of the above specifications, I fear we shall delay the work of research. However, they are all in point and serve to emphasize the fact that it is probable the exceptional teacher—and for that matter, principal or other school official—who is fitted to make research contributions.

Yet given the bump of curiosity; the faculty of accuracy; and an I. Q. of the upper ranges (if we dare even to suggest the classification of teacher mentalities) and the problem-attitude should result.

V. *The Follow-up of Research*.—Someone has written a book entitled "After Research What?" I think in many cases the problem of largest magnitude is not the research problem itself; but what to do with the results of the research problem. As in the game of golf, the important thing is not the swing at the ball, or even the hitting of the ball, but the "follow-through."

More often our "follow-through" is hampered, I believe, by pressure of work than by lack of appreciation of what we ought to do. Confession is good for the soul. I recall at this minute three small studies that I have made at my school in Washington during the past two years, that are reclining inactively in my files waiting for that happy moment when I shall be able to get them out and put them to work. One is a study of the uses of movable classroom furniture; another of drop-outs from our school; and the third an analysis of factors that enter into a pupil's winning, or failing to win, the coveted school letter, *H*.

I suppose the only cure for such a situation is constant renewal of energy through renewal of inspiration. I usually go away from

*Studies in Education. Yearbook No. XV of the Nat. Society of College Teachers of Ed., 85 pp., 1926.

professional gatherings like this, with re-inspired determination to work even harder and longer in the harvest fields of education.

VI. *Some Illustrations of Research Studies Made.*—In preparing this paper I wrote letters about the country, somewhat, in an endeavor to learn of any secondary schools that seemed to be outstanding in the promotion of research within their walls. In going over my returns I was impressed most by the apparent lack of organized intra-mural research. However, one or two excellent examples came to my attention. Among them the DeWitt Clinton High School of New York—or perhaps I ought rather to say the Principal of this School, Mr. Francis H. J. Paul, seemed most progressive.

Mr. Paul very kindly sent me two of his research studies that I wish to refer to with a brevity that cannot of course do the studies justice. The first was a Self-Survey made by the faculty of the DeWitt Clinton High School, under direction of Principal Paul, completed in November of 1924. This survey as typewritten makes a volume of approximately 300 pages, legal cap size. It takes up such topics as: 1. The work of the teachers and the improvement of teachers in service, etc.; 2. The Program of Studies:—a discussion of objectives of the various subject departments, prepared by the teachers under leadership of the department chairmen; 3. Schedule making—both an art and a science in this great school of over 5000 students; 4. Methods of individualizing instruction; 5. Methods of teaching; 6. Supervision; 7. Coöperation of faculty, student body and home, including an interesting description of their system of student self-government; 8. Character building; 9. Pupil-welfare work; and 10. Equipment and the physical plant.

At my request, Principal Paul sent me the following estimate of evaluation of the survey:

“Concerning our self-survey I feel briefly that the following are among the benefits we consider have resulted from making it:

(1) It has served the purpose of stock taking. We have found exactly what the procedures in the several departments have been under the headings of the survey;

(2) It has been of value as a means of self criticism, as it has enabled us to see clearly and definitely the lines of progress for the immediate future;

(3) It has aided very much in correlating the work of the several departments under certain unifying principles in order that the school as a whole might coöperate towards the fundamental objective of secondary education;

(4) It has served as a point of departure for progress in many lines which has continued since the period when the survey was made."

The second is a study made by Mr. Paul in September of 1922 of 1030 pupils of low intelligence quotient just entering the senior high school. This report, which covers some 400 typewritten pages, investigates the habits and interests affecting progress; parental and home influences; causes of failures, etc. The concluding chapter on "Remedial Measures" sums up in admirable fashion the various expedients, developed at DeWitt Clinton for attempting to deal most efficaciously with the low I. Q.—including such things as use of standard tests; elimination of subjects; changes of rate; minimum essentials; and the guidance program. The report concludes with an excellent bibliography of books and articles dealing with the student of the low I. Q.

In addition to the above, Mr. Paul sent me a three page mimeographed circular entitled "DeWitt Clinton High School Research Projects" wherein the Chairmen of several of the Departments outline briefly the research projects that they have now under way. This I take to be an excellent example of organized intra-mural research.

The Business High School of Washington, D. C., under the direction of Principal Allan Davis has been conducting some interesting researches in the field of commercial education. One of their most interesting projects is that being conducted now by Dr. Frances M. Butts on "The Associative Method of Teaching First-year Shorthand and Typewriting." First semester shorthand-typewriting pupils are required to write the shorthand outlines of the material appearing in their typewriting manuals just above the lines of copy. In the typewriting lesson they were required to typewrite alternately from copy and shorthand outlines. By comparison with a control group using traditional methods, this rather novel associative process seems to be getting marked results, in the development of transcription ability.

There came to my attention during my recent correspondence in developing this paper, also, some interesting work of Mr. W. A. Wetzel, Principal of the Senior High School at Trenton, New Jersey,

in developing objective measures of pupil and teacher efficiency. And from Providence, Rhode Island, I learn that Mr. Richard D. Allen, Assistant Superintendent and Director of the Department of Research and Guidance, has made some outstanding developments in the *modus operandi* of guidance.

To go further in the citation of individual examples of secondary-school research would be unwise for the interested schoolman has but to consult the several bibliographies which I shall mention in a moment to get on track of hundreds of excellent studies. I have mentioned a few specific cases simply because the concrete adds vitality to the discussion.*

VII. *Some Research Studies that should be made.*—In spite of the large number of research studies that have been made in the secondary field, there are still of course many unsolved problems. Professor P. M. Symonds in an article in the September 1927 number of the *Journal of Educational Research* suggests no less than eighty live problems in the field of measurement alone.

In all the other fields we can think of many more. I shall, in conclusion, mention five or six of the most pressing, and to me most alluring:

There's the problem of individual advancement of pupils—how to get "custom fabrication" and "quantity production" at one and the same time. The problem has its analogies, I fear, in "how to keep your cake and likewise eat it" but it's interesting!

Then there's the nation-wide, yes the world-wide problem of the low I. Q. I'm going to venture to coin a new term and call them the "Opifers"—that vast army of souls with I. Q.'s ranging, roughly, between 75 and 90. Your Latin memories will doubtless give you the significance of my terminology.

Then there is guidance—the soul of the modern educational movement.

And the problem of child accounting: what systematic records ought the principal to keep looking toward future determinations?

Then there are the researches of psychiatry and so-called "mental-science" which ought to receive close attention these days, for too

*I wish at this point to make thankful acknowledgment to Dr. Philip W. L. Cox, Professor of Secondary Education at New York University, for helpful suggestions and leads to most of the cases cited in this section.

long has the educator neglected the affective—the emotional side of child life and of the learning process. And this leads me to, and keys up with, my final suggestion: namely, the crying need for research in character and particularly sex education.

There is a certain sense in which every child leads a double life—I mean a double thought life. One is the thought life that his parents and his teachers know something about, as manifested by the pupil's various self-expressions in their presence. The other is his free thought and action when alone, and especially when with his contemporaries—apart from teachers, parents or other adults.

If there were only more accessible ways of studying this private thought life of children, I suspect we should learn much for the improvement in our educative processes. Psycho-analysis, word association, etc., are perhaps helpful. In the meantime we have plenty of evidence pointing to the existence of improper thought life on the part of our young people that should stimulate us toward research for better sex education.

In a half-page advertisement in the *Saturday Evening Post* of the past month, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company declares that "it is estimated that more than 12,000,000 persons in the United States have or at some time have had" a certain ailment originating in improper adjustment of the sex life. "The deaths of 200,000 Americans each year, are directly caused" by this disease. Then, continues this published statement "Just so long as men and women, and boys and girls approaching maturity are not taught to recognize the cruelest of all foes to health and happiness—just so long will many lives be wrecked, lives which could have been saved or made decently livable. . . . Men and women should learn the truth and tell it to those dependent upon them. It is a helpful sign that the best educators deplore the old habit of secrecy and urge widespread knowledge and frank instruction."

In Washington we have made a beginning. Covering a period of about two years, our teachers and parents were provided with periodic lectures by trained specialists from the American Social Hygiene Association. Two big achievements have resulted from these meetings: First the parents and teachers of Washington have learned that sex problems *can be discussed* frankly and effectively; and second, our parents and teachers have been made ready for the next step,

possible only through the first; namely, practical sex education in the schools. We now have, therefore, teacher committees at work, with social hygiene specialists in consultation, endeavoring to incorporate real sex education material into our several courses of study.

Oh that we educators, the country over, might become more active in attacking the most vital life-training problems so that it might never be necessary for an insurance company or any other organization or person outside of our profession to call us to a sense of our manifest duty.

VIII. *Organization for Research.*—But we know that no social movement is going to get very far in this age without organization and centralized direction. Up to the present, research in our secondary schools, has been sporadic, with countless duplications of work inevitable. To bring some sort of order out of the existing chaos certain movements for the organization of research work are now under way.

Thus far the movements have manifested themselves largely in the work of preparing bibliographies of research studies completed and under way—but this of itself is an inestimable step forward. Professor Symons, in his article on "Needed Research in the field of Measurement in Secondary Education" in the September 1927 number of the *Journal of Educational Research*, points out the danger and wastefulness of educators undertaking researches that have long since been made and definite conclusions established—citing the case of those who attempt correlations between intelligence and accomplishment. Unquestionably the first task of any person about to undertake a research should be to find out so far as possible what has already been done along that particular line. Fortunately there is now a considerable amount of research bibliography available.

Foremost in the promotion of the bibliographical work has been, the "National Committee on Research in Secondary Education"—of the U. S. Bureau of Education, with the National Education Association's "Department of Research" a close second—or perhaps I should say cognate—agency.

In 1925 the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education was organized and it proceeded at once to prepare a Bibliography of research studies that had thus far been made in the secondary field. This Bibliography was issued in 1926 as Bureau of Education

Bulletin No. 2. It lists 785* studies made between the years 1920-1925 classifying them under 63 topic heads.

Bringing the good work forward from 1925 to 1927 the Bureau issued in 1927 its Bulletin No. 27, which lists 287 studies under 58 classification heads.

Cognate with the work of the bureau, the Department of Research of the National Education Association under Dr. John K. Norton issued in 1926 a mimeographed bibliography of research studies of the secondary field in *progress*, listing 366 studies under 76 classification heads; and following this in 1927 with another bibliography of studies in progress containing references to 303 studies under 85 heads.

Continuing the inventory work, the U. S. Bureau of Education has issued this month its third bibliography of studies in secondary education .

These bibliographies are literally gold mines of valuable suggestions to the secondary-school administrator and teacher, and I certainly wish there were some way in which their contents might be made known to every such educator in our country.

Coöperating with the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education are some 17 organizations† including several of

*There is some duplication in this figure as some of the studies are listed under two or more classifications.

†American Association of Collegiate Registrars

Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland

Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States
Educational Research Association

Head Masters' Association

National Association of High-School Supervisors and Inspectors

National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Nation Education Association

National Catholic Welfare Conference

National Society for the Study of education

National Society of College Teachers of Education

North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools

Phi Delta Kappa

Private School Association of the Central States

Progressive Education Association

The California Society for the Study of Secondary Education

U. S. Bureau of Education

the regional associations such as the North Central Association which has done some excellent research work in the secondary fields.*

Valuable summaries of researches in the secondary field are found also in the Fifth and Sixth Yearbooks of the Department of Superintendence, N. E. A.

In the matter of state organizations specifically for research in the secondary field, there has come to my attention only that of the "Virginia Committee on Research in Secondary Education" of which Professor W. R. Smithey of the University of Virginia is Chairman. This committee has already held one annual meeting and published the proceedings thereof,† and work is now in progress for the second.

*Cf. Report of the North Central Association on standardization of the junior high school, as reported in U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 26 (1927) pp. 32.

†See University of Virginia Record for Oct. 1927—"A High School Testing program for the State of Virginia."

THIRD SESSION

The third session of the twelfth convention was a luncheon session held in the Georgian Room of Hotel Statler at 1 P. M. on Tuesday. Over four hundred sat down for the luncheon. The Varsity Club, Clifton Johnson and Raymond Simonds, tenors; Ralph Tailby and Robert Isensee, basses; and Earl Weidner, accompanist, sang excellently the following songs:

Song of Songs.....	Moya
Duna	McGill
Border Ballard.....	Maunder
Annabelle Lee.....	(popular)
Bells of St. Mary.....	(popular)
Hello Swanee.....	(popular)

President F. L. Bacon presided. The former presidents of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals were at the speakers' table. The President introduced the former presidents who were present. Mr. M. R. McDaniel, Principal of Oak Park and River Forest Township High School spoke as follows:

CLAUDE P. BRIGGS

The first name mentioned in the first article of the First Year Book of our Association is that of Claude Briggs. That first article is a brief history of the formation of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. It tells how the small group of high school principals met in Detroit, February, 1916, to discuss the advisability of forming a Department of Secondary School Administration. Mr. Briggs was chosen secretary of this informal conference. From that first meeting in 1916 to the time of his sudden death, September 2, 1927, Claude Briggs was closely associated with our organization. His interest was not merely a passive one, but was active and vital. He was not only willing to help when called upon, but was ever ready to volunteer his help when needed. In recognition of his service for the Association and of his ability and fitness for the position we honored ourselves by electing him our President for the year 1923-24.

But the great influence of Mr. Briggs was with the teachers and with the boys and girls with whom he worked. To an unusual de-

gree he inspired loyalty in his teachers and in his pupils love of whatsoever is true and of good report. His teachers and his pupils loved him for his kindly interest, his sympathy, his encouragement, and for his big heart. As Emerson said of another, "He had a heart as large as the world, but no room in it for the memory of a wrong."

His last day on earth was a busy one. After the day spent in getting ready for the opening of school, he was still thinking of others, still trying to help some one. As he walked toward his home he said to his assistant, "Well, John, you think it over and we will see if we can't do something to help the boy."

Recently when I visited Lakewood, Ohio, where he had been principal for seven years, I could not help but notice how the whole atmosphere of the school was vibrant with the spirit of the man who so recently had been their leader.

We who knew him intimately loved Claude Briggs for his sterling qualities of manhood, his straightforwardness, his dependability, his downright honesty and sincerity. We may rightly hold our heads a little higher and face a future which is a little brighter because Claude Briggs was a member of our profession.

GREETINGS FROM THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

J. W. CRABTREE, SECRETARY

It is a great honor to be called upon to extend the greetings of the National Education Association to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, yesterday a noted national organization co-operating with the National Education Association—today an integral part of the N. E. A. itself with power and prestige almost on a par with that of the Department of Superintendence. What could mean more to the N. E. A. than for this outstanding organization to come in with its history rich in achievements, and with a complete leadership and control of policies in secondary education and administration! This is one of the greatest acquisitions of strength in the history of the Association. It is equally great for your own group. It adds to efficiency and professional success as those mergers in industry, such as that of the General Motors adds to business success. The previous coöperative relations were cordial and effective, but now the organization becomes like the Department of Superintendence, a powerful link in the chain of strength of the greater association.

What an opportunity the larger National Education Association has before it! The fullest coöperation and support of all levels in the profession. The confidence of other leading professions. The ear of the public as no other association could have. No other organization of teachers in all history in this or any other nation has had the opportunity which these relationships and conditions make possible for the National Education Association.

That which has given the association this unparalleled opportunity is the fact that it works to promote great causes rather than to promote selfish ends. Its work and ideals are set forth in the following which is printed again and again in its publication:

It works for the youth of the nation.

It advocates better salaries for better teachers.

It brings to the spotlight worthy school activities.

It broadcasts progress and worthy achievements.

It is a clearing-house for local and state associations.

It is the voice of those in the service.

It shapes the ideals of the profession.

It is the power plant of educational progress.

Its goal has been for a decade "A stabilized, all-inclusive membership and the entire profession at work on its problems."

Your group has been guided by these same high ideals but it now pledges itself anew and will coöperate in a more effective way than in the past. Of course the general association through its secretary greets you and welcomes you into these larger opportunities. It has unlimited confidence in your department. It hopes you may center your efforts more than ever before on certain vital problems which you naturally desire to promote:

1. Organizing to study the problems of the profession and of the schools in every high school in the land.

2. Giving particular attention to the questions growing out of the proposal to permit only potential leaders to attend college.

3. Striving to offset the influence of the propaganda sent out recently by the Manufacturers' Association which advocates releasing for employment all pupils in the upper grades and high school who are not doing satisfactory work.

4. Doing investigational and research work better to adapt the high-school organization in its curriculum, and in its appliances and

equipment to meet the actual needs of young men and women, carrying out the principle of providing all with an opportunity for coming into their own, and making a more intimate connection between the work of the high school and the work and needs of the home and community.

5. Taking into account the fact that adjustments in education are necessary in all nations as in our own, and that other nations are depending on us to work out plans of fundamental importance. It is your great privilege and your special responsibility to show wise leadership in the entire field of secondary education.

6. Carrying out in short the ideals of your department and the Association in every way possible.

The educational world is moving forward. Industry is setting a challenging pace, but with the profession united as it is educational progress of to-day is not so far behind. Our biggest problems are still ahead. The greatest value of the work of your association together with that of the general association during the last decade is to prepare for meeting the larger responsibilities just ahead.

Greetings and congratulations.

Mr. Thomas H. Briggs, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, spoke as follows:

I have been asked by your president to speak briefly about the accomplishments of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Although until recently never legally a member (the old constitution excluding all but principals and executive heads of secondary schools) I have paid for membership, nevertheless, from the time of organization and have attended every meeting but one. In 1916 a small group of men interested in secondary education met in Detroit, when the Department of Superintendence was in session, and decided to organize some such association as this. Later in that year a similar movement was initiated by principals in and around Chicago. Wisely the two groups coöperated, and in 1917 the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was organized and held its first meeting in Kansas City. The Yearbook records 245 paid members; in 1928 we have 3500.

In his address President B. Frank Brown stated that the reasons for this organization are as follows:

"a) It will give us the proper basis for the development of a proper professional consciousness among all secondary school principals.

"b) It will become a clearing-house for the exchange of new ideas and experiments in administration, and a forum for the discussion of all educational questions that pertain to secondary schools.

"c) The consensus of opinion represented in the judgment of a national body of experts will give increased influence and power with our superior officers, with other educational organizations, and with the general public on all matters that relate to our schools.

"d) There will be the possibility of an organized inspection of colleges and universities by high-school men and women with respect to the welfare of the boys and girls who enter these schools for the purpose of intellectual, physical, social, and moral development."

"Will it be hard," he said, "to see how the backing of such an organization as this will assist you in bringing about educational changes in your school, or how it will aid you when you wish to resist encroachments upon the field of your endeavor? We shall from now on act intelligently and unitedly We shall now take our place among the organizations that are dictating the policy of the schools today."

These are brave words, worthy expression of hopes now as then. There can be no doubt but that the Association has been of material aid in developing "a proper professional consciousness" among us, for attendance at any of the meetings where so many obviously able men and women represent the secondary schools can not fail to hearten any individual by making him more keenly aware of the company in which he works. And a reading of the yearbooks will amply justify the claim for success of the Association as a "clearing-house" for an exchange of new ideas and somewhat of the results of experimentation. How far beyond that we have succeeded is a matter of question.

In preparation for this paper I have refreshed my memory by going over each of the eleven yearbooks, which the faithful and loyal secretary has issued with a promptness that could well be emulated by all similar officials. This review reveals that the papers presented are in variety and in value comparable to those heard in our best associations or read in our professional journals. One is led to

wonder, however, what has been the result. It can never be known how many principals have from these papers been given new ideas, stimulated to apply them, or strengthened in their attempts to better their schools. Probably the effect has been good. But, with equal probability, it could have been much greater if the Association concentrated its attention each year on some one project or if there were more committees continued and financially aided to develop concrete and constructive programs.

In the proceedings may be noted from time to time that, sometimes following a paper, there have been committees appointed to work out detailed programs. Some of these committees have, unfortunately, done nothing. The ones that have been most successful, like those on uniform blanks, on the honor society, and on class size, have been continued, and some of them subsidized, until highly valuable reports are presented. To make such reports even more effective than they are some machinery is needed for getting and keeping the results before all those concerned with secondary schools. This might well be done by having reported at subsequent meetings the success attained in application with suggested modifications growing out of experience. Something of this has been accomplished regarding the National Honor Society.

Some variety in the programs is doubtless desirable, but would it not be wise, as recommended by one of the committees on resolutions, for the Association each year to consider more intensively one general topic? The underlying theory or philosophy might be presented in one paper and specific, concrete applications be presented in others. Three of the programs this year have some such unity.

It would be unreasonable to expect only praise for what we have attempted and accomplished. Proud of our record, as we have a right to be, we are open-minded to consider any frank criticism. Consequently I quote a paragraph from a nationally known educator, formerly one of our members:

"The Association, in my judgment, has almost completely fallen down in dealing with the major problems of secondary education. I do not think it can claim credit for many, if any, of the major movements that have arisen in this field in the past decade. The leaders of this association have not forged to the front as thinkers in the

curriculum field, and they have not shown originality in inventing solutions for pressing problems. They have been content for the most part to administer the curriculum very conventionally and very like the one that has obtained in secondary schools for many, many years. This group has by no means been as alert to the curriculum problem as have the superintendents of schools. The next decade of the life of this Association ought to witness some really hard thinking and some real leadership in the study of some of the big problems of this field."

In our loyalty we may dissent from some of these statements, but the result doubtless will be to stimulate us to a more earnest effort to think largely of the big problems of secondary education and to attack them courageously and continuously. During the past few years we have had other associations undertake problems which naturally should have been ours. I speak especially of those on extra-curriculum activities, by the National Society for the Study of Education, on junior and senior high school curricula, by the Department of Superintendence, and on research, by the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education. Perhaps the challenge in the quoted criticism may better be met now that we have, through the provision that the three most recently retired presidents are members of the executive committee, possibilities for a more continuous policy than formerly.

Our growth in membership, though it is not so well distributed over the country or so stable as could be desired, our papers and committee reports, our yearbooks, promptly issued and much improved by the omission of the directory and the annual necrology, our financial balance, which is respectable even in this day of big business, and the fine professional spirit are all matters that give us just cause for pride. What association has accomplished more in eleven years than this? But there is still more to do. In no phase of education are the problems so important, complex, and difficult of solution. I congratulate you that this is so, for their recognized importance, complexity, and difficulty will inevitably prove the challenge which will stir so powerful a body as this to constructive action.

The Chairman next introduced Mr. Cameron Beck.

HOW TO BRING THE SCHOOLS CLOSER TO BUSINESS
AND BUSINESS TO THE SCHOOLS

CAMERON BECK,

PERSONNEL DIRECTOR, NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE

When your President asked me to speak at this meeting I told him, frankly, that I felt that my message had been heard in so many high schools and before so many of your state meetings, that I was not the man for this hour. I assure you, however, if it were not for the feeling that I am in the hands of sympathetic friends, I would hesitate to appear before this mighty aggregation of men and women gathered here from every state in the Union. The board of governors of the New York Stock Exchange recognizes the importance of this meeting.

Wall Street.—the place that still seems to be such a mysterious place to educators and citizens generally—is the recognized headquarters of the great financial and industrial concerns that mean so much to the economic structure of the nation. There will be found leaders from the main streets of the nation. Men who by reason of their outstanding character and ability have been hand picked from every state to be the directive heads of our great concerns. In Wall Street will be found the pulsating heart whose beats are felt to the furthestmost corners of Main Street to give America her leadership among the nations.

But to-day, it would seem to me, that Wall Street must give place to Boston—for here this week are gathered LEADERS OF AN ORGANIZATION—an organization that is farther reaching in its influence than Wall Street.

The Public School.—An organization that represents: 23,000,000 of our children that has 263,000 public school buildings that has an invested capital of \$4,000,000,000, and supervised by 700,000 teachers.

What man would attempt to measure the mighty leadership, the potential power of the nation's educational life represented at this National Education Association? The decisions made at this convention will be felt to the corners of the public. Grave responsibilities rest upon those who share in its deliberations.

America stands preëminent as the greatest industrial nation of the world. Her place in the financial world is recognized. The automatic machine, technology of production, efficient methods, and standardization have been mighty factors in attaining this place. Standardization may have its place in industry. I question its place in the educational life on the nation's children, at least, until the time when some wise leader will show us the way to standardize the individual.

But I come to you to-day not as a teacher or a preacher, but simply as a business executive, to bring to you out of a busy life merely some observations, some experiences, some convictions and then with your permission perchance a few suggestions on the subject of creating better understanding between the schools and business.

In preparation of this talk I wrote to nearly a hundred leaders in the business world in many states asking for their viewpoint. At the suggestion of your President some of the replies have been printed and will be distributed to-day. So you see I have garnered from many fields and in many places—but what I have to say comes largely out of nearly 12 years service at the New York Stock Exchange.

Last year 13,000 people, for the most part representing youth, called at our office to ask the eternal question "What about a job—how much does it pay—what are the hours?" Nowadays if we can get one out of a hundred applicants to ask "What are the opportunities?" we would be happy.

Yet, for the most part, these folks have been in the public schools 8 to 12 of the most plastic years of their lives.

So I ask the question—No. 1: *Are you teaching your children that work should be something more than a job and that wages can be something more than money?*

On our own payroll we have nearly 1400 different folks, representing 62 vocations, all the way from the pretty manicurist in the barber shop to the highly paid technical experts. In this group of workers, I am told, we have the largest number of the "teen age" or high school age boy in the employ of any financial organization in the country. Now a man does not see interviewed in his own department 13,000 people in the course of a year or be the responsible head for everything that has to do with employment, the education

of the worker of his job, for at the Stock Exchange our Institute is giving systematic instruction in economics to nearly 500 employees—the program of which may be had is outlined in the Personnel Reports at the door—wages, promotions, separations, pensions, group insurance, without recognizing that the high speed age in which we find ourselves has caused folks to face problems and make decisions for which many seem ill-prepared.

Six years ago I thought I saw evidence of something happening and with the permission of my Chairman visited the High School Principal of the commuting zone. I wanted to check up with you folks. Upon my return from Europe three years ago I found requests from 72 high-school principals of the Empire State asking if sometime I could visit their schools and speak to their students from the business man's viewpoint. I took those requests to my Chairman, and after reading them he turned to me with these words—

“These letters from these school men present a tremendous appeal for help. It seems to me that it is the smallest thing any business organization can do in an hour when morale is being so shot to pieces is to release any man on its staff that can help the educator to build back. If you want to go, go with our compliments.”

And so I have done the best that is in me to answer the calls that have come—41,000 miles last year—23 states. What an obligation I owe you, what hours of privilege have been mine. But is this piece of service from the business world to the schools to be the work of one individual?

How can the leaders of our great corporations, our national business organizations, be made to see that coöperation of this kind is a fundamental necessity if the product of our schools, which for the larger part finds its way in to the business world, is to have proper conceptions of the structure of which they are to become a part.

Would the schools welcome such a service? I think they would. Yet in my journeys I find few teachers who are willing to visit places in the work-a-day world to get first hand knowledge of the conditions their charges must face when they go out to work. At a recent convention of 150 commercial teachers, I asked how many had made calls on the business houses or industries of their communities during a year and not one was willing to admit having made a call.

And so I ask another question—No. 2: *Is something wrong with the curriculum or is something wrong with the teacher that such conditions exist?*

Then I have discovered a number of principals who see little value in having business men speak to their students on vocational opportunities offered by the various concerns of the community. As one banker stated to me recently, "Outside of myself, Beck, you are the only business man in three years that has spoken to our high-school students." Scarcity of speakers from the business and professional world to put it across? I do not think so—for youth to-day cares not so much for oratory as for facts.

What greater opportunity presents itself to the local high-school principal than to start a public speaking class for the business men of the community and train for such a service a group of leaders of affairs as vocational lecturers and advisers? Such a group of carefully chosen men and women giving them an intimate contact with the school program and school problems, should be of vital help in the launching of new projects that demand public approval for their adoption. "The undeveloped resources of the American community" what a story could be told.

Not once in 11 years in Wall Street has a leader of affairs refused me in the request for him to interview a boy about his life vocation and I am going constantly to the top. Dr. Loomis of our own Institute has so won his way into the hearts of our lads at the Stock Exchange that I am tempted to call him at times our "Father Confessor," for the lads go to him not only for educational guidance but with their private problems as well.

So I ask another question—No. 3: *Do the students of your school look upon you as their principal or as their friend? Do they seek your counsel after school hours, or do they hold aloof? Have you the confidence of your pupils?*

Not all the children from high schools go on to colleges and universities. In my own state 59% do not finish their secondary education.

I often wonder if there is something fundamentally wrong with the present secondary educational program that produces such a turnover. Let a turnover like that happen in a modern business establishment and the powers that be will snap into action over night.

So I ask another question—No. 4: *When will children be taught the things they are fitted to do?* In one of our smaller cities I spoke to 600 wide-awake young people in a private business college and I asked myself the question—

What were the circumstances that forced these young people out of a million dollar high school to pay from their private funds for a course of training they knew they wanted? Six hundred future citizens, six hundred future tax payers whose only memory of the public school was that it was inadequate to meet their needs. They simply refused to be standardized. Someday perhaps children will be taught and not subjects.

Then I would make an appeal for the teacher with a warm and understanding heart. Who are the leaders in Wall Street that men turn to? Are they the cold calculating intellects? What led Mr. Simmons, our President, in his address to our boys on the life and service of Seymour L. Cromwell (our former President) to give to them a message that has been called "A Gettysburg Speech to the American Boy"—30,000 copies of which we have supplied to you at your request. What led Mr. Whitney, one of the Governors of the Exchange to introduce, at our athletic dinner last year Mr. William B. Potts, President of the N.Y.S.E. Building Company as the "best beloved and most kindly governor of the Exchange."

If you were to ask me about the greatness of my own Chairman, Mr. Billings, I would tell you to find it in this story. In the midst of a seething market (and may I add, little does the public appreciate the mental and physical strain of the member during those great markets) a member called a boy. The boy gave him evidence that he was engaged. Well, the member forgot himself and struck the boy. He didn't hurt him and it is the only case on record. Word was passed to Mr. Billings. In the midst of a trading day he went to the member and told him he wished him to apologize to the boy. He said—"Why, I am a member, he is an employee." Mr. B. told him he would give him 5 minutes to apologize to the boy. And a member of the Exchange apologized to a seventeen-year-old boy.

These men occupy enviable positions in the world of finance. I think their greatness comes because they are men with understanding hearts—so approachable that scrubwomen or oilers would find no embarrassment in their presence.

Yet it was but a few months ago that I was told that the teachers of a certain high school would rather contribute \$25 to their retirement fund than have an interview with their own principal. A man told me recently he would rather try to call on God than on a certain personnel director. Men and women, boys and girls rise to the heights not by criticism, but by way of encouragement. And I know men who are ready to fall by the wayside, not because they have not done worthwhile things, but because their supervisors, have withheld the cup of cold water, have bestowed upon them the severest criticism of all by not even noticing them.

Within six weeks, a young coach full of enthusiasm and good works, opened up his heart to me in a conference that lasted to the midnight hour. He said he was ready to give up, for the reason that not once in a year and a half had his superintendent even noticed him.

I do not know of anything more iniquitous than a combination of a keen intellect and a cold heart placed in a position that has to deal with human beings.

At a recent meeting of "The Wallmen," an organization of 25 personnel men in Wall Street, I proposed that this year we organize a Society of Encouragers among our members and that we make an effort in each of our organizations to discover those faithful souls, who are the mainstays of business, folks who always work back-stage, who applaud and are never applauded—to hunt them out and give them a word of appreciation for their fidelity of service. What one of us is not susceptible to the good wishes of our fellow men? Again I ask a question: Is there not more room for just this sort of thing in the schools?

At one of those great meetings for the boys of the Financial District, conducted under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A., *John D. Rockefeller, Jr.* was the speaker. At the close of his talk a boy asked him how to attain success. He gave the lad the best answer I have ever heard, when he said: "Success comes to the person who does the common things of life uncommonly well."

The Common Things: I suggest a few that are sometimes overlooked in the quest for high intellectual ratings. Surely twelve years of public school life should send a boy out with deep convictions of the following commonplace requirements:

1. *Cleanliness*—A soiled collar has kept more than one lad out of a front office job.
John—carrying samples of real estate under his fingernails.
Howard—57 varieties over his coat—and yet I met a high-school principal lately who wore his food well.
2. *Courtesy*—Old fashioned common courtesy—to superiors—to subordinates, the same. Page—headed for membership—because of courtesy to scrubwoman.
3. *Honesty*—Old fashioned.
Harry—the boy who would not take the firm's money, not so particular about firm's time.
4. *Obedience*: Instant—constant—obedience—The lad who has never been willing to take orders will never give them.
5. *Integrity*—Absolute old-fashioned integrity—The hardest person in the world to help is a liar. Nine lads lied to us on their application blanks for employment two years ago. Nine of them became problems. In November, Dr. Hughes, President of Iowa State College, told me he had instructed the Registrar to refuse admission to any candidate who lied on his application blank. So close is the scrutiny of the Governing Committee of the Stock Exchange, so closely does it guard the reputation it has maintained through the years—that if a member repudiates his word he is expelled.

Now quickly may I outline what I like to call my *four responsibilities*. I do so with the hope that there may be something in them that may be of some service to you, who in a real sense are personnel directors:

1. *My first responsibility is to my employer*—the man who gives me my job and the man who pays me my salary. The man who does the worrying and the man who takes the risks. He is the man often overlooked in educational circles, but nevertheless the backbone of America's prosperity.

2. *Second, I believe I have a responsibility to the individual* on our payroll. That's hard, you say. Of course it is, especially in these large organizations. I like to think that each employee on our pay-

roll is an individual who has hopes, who has ideals, and who has aspirations.

May I say to you that our "top management," and by that I mean our Board of Governors of the New York Stock Exchange, will go the limit in the defense of a boy if we believe he is right. There are a lot of times, I have found out in eleven years' time, that it is perfectly possible for an eighteen-year-old employee to be absolutely right, and a foreman of forty years, dead wrong. We won't allow any disciplining in the presence of others and neither will we allow an employee to be disciplined until the employee has had a chance in the quiet of the private office to tell his story. When you take time to listen to their stories you learn a lot of things.

A while ago my automatic rang and a foreman phoned and said that he had had a little trouble with a boy. . . .

"Bring him up."

He came up, his face just as red as it could be and Herbert's as white as a ghost. I asked them to sit down and then in order to give the older man a chance to get his blood pressure back to normal I left them for ten minutes. Finally he said:

"This boy called me a lot of dirty names."

"Bad stuff. Saw them suspend a member of the Stock Exchange thirty days for that once. When did he call you the names?"

"He didn't call me the names."

"What on earth happened."

"He went back into one of the telephone booths (we have 750 telephone clerks who operate the private wires) and used this language." The telephone clerk had told him about it.

"Give me the name of the clerk and I will get him right up here."

"He doesn't want his name known."

"You want me to discipline this boy on the testimony of a man who won't come up himself? That stuff died nine years ago."

In a manufacturer's meeting I told that story and a prominent manufacturer came up to me and said:

"You'd call a foreman down in the presence of an employee?" (Referring to this story.)

"Sure. Why not?"

"If I did that in our factory the whole works would blow up."

It hasn't done that for us. I will tell you exactly what it has done for us—it has made our foremen very careful to analyze a case before they bring it to the mat. We haven't had a bit of trouble at all.

Yet a while ago I witnessed a high school principal at an assembly call a lad by name and tell him to finish his breakfast out in the corridor.

3. The *third* thing I would suggest is a *civic responsibility*. I feel that more keenly than I ever did before. I like to feel that we have a definite responsibility to the community that sends us our help, to see to it that the people who work for us go back at night better citizens than they were when they came to work in the morning. And when we lose that feeling it is time to look in the looking-glass.

Then *Last*, I like to think I have a *responsibility to the people* who come in our office, who are *looking for employment*. You folks look prosperous and I do not suppose you ever had to go out and apply for a job. If you want an experience sometime, get out of your glad rags and offer your services at the employment windows of some of our concerns and see how many times they kiss you in the course of a week. Of all the bunk that they are still handing out in some companies!

He came into my office one day, one of those future leaders, a kid with a blue calico shirt, part of his toes sticking through his shoes and after I motioned to him he dropped down beside my desk, trembling like a leaf. He had a rose on his coat. I said:

"Otto, I suppose some lady pinned that rose on your coat." He blushed and said:

"Yes, Mr. Beck, she did. I live over in a tenement house with my mother, who has been sick in bed for weeks. Every day a little girl gives mother some flowers and this morning she gave me one of the flowers to put on my coat."

I chatted with him and finally he pulled out the rose and handed it to me across my desk and said:

"Mr. Beck, I would like you to have this rose."

"Oh no, Otto, that looks too good on your own coat."

"I want you to have it."

"Why?"

"Because, Mr. Beck, you're the only man who has been kind to me this week."

So it seems to me, leaders, that these folks that are in your hands and in my hands are there to be led out into a bigger and a fuller life—not by some professor in yonder university who is still to write a book on "Youth," or yet by some preacher who is yet to preach a great sermon. It seems to me that right here to-day are gathered those mighty forces than can go out from here to make the start.

The President of the Elementary Teachers Association of the state, whose guests we are, sounded the keynote in her address the other day.—Kindliness, sympathy, a sense of humor and an understanding heart are the guide posts along the road to successful teaching.

Let business and the schools combine in using these guide posts—and we will find the common meeting ground for the days that are ahead.

It has been a privilege to have been here with you and I leave with you Douglas Mallock's. . . .

Gold, yes a man must have his wages,
It has been so through all the ages.
A man must also have his hire,
To set his table and feed his fire.
And yet his wage, however much,
Is never quite enough to touch
His weary hands and heart with healing,
He must come homeward, somehow feeling
That not with this a man is paid.

But if we can come home tonight
And know to-day we did the right,
And made the world that never knew it
A little better passing through it,
Can know we caused a life to smile,
Or lightened someone's load a while,
That something we have made or done
Has brought delight to anyone,
Yes, know we have served our fellowmen.
Then we are paid, but not till then."

After a short intermission the presiding officer introduced Gerrit A. Beneker who gave an illustrated talk, *Art in Education*.

FOURTH SESSION

The fourth session was a joint meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals and the Department of Superintendence. It was held in Mechanics Hall at 7:30 P.M. Tuesday, February 28.

The session was opened by a program of music by the combined bands of the Boston High School of Commerce and of the Boston Latin School.

Superintendent J. M. Gwinn of San Francisco, California, President of the Department of Superintendence opened the program with a brief word of welcome and with the introduction of Francis L. Bacon, President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, who set the background of the subject of the evening session, *Supervision of Secondary Schools*, in his address, *The Statement of the Problem and the Viewpoint of the Principal*.

SUPERVISION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND VIEWPOINT
OF THE PRINCIPAL

FRANCIS L. BACON,

PRESIDENT, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS

Considering the country, at large, the secondary school knows little and does less about supervision. This statement is supported by the interpretation which denotes supervision as the attempt to improve classroom procedure or what is often called the technique of instruction. Instruction has been and still is, most of us believe, the crux of the whole educational process. The function of supervision is the improvement of instruction through the recognition of effective content and methods and elimination of ineffective material and practice.

The elementary and grammar schools have done much with this interpretation of supervision. These units have not only established techniques; they have put them to work. In the main the secondary school has done neither. There are many trained supervisors in the grade schools who give daily demonstration of the values which may

come through supervision. A very small number of high schools can show comparable supervisors. For the most part the grammar school principal and teachers have acquired a viewpoint toward supervision far different in its sympathy and understanding from that which may be discovered in the secondary school.

The contribution of the normal school to the professionalization of the grade-school teacher has been the outstanding influence in bringing recognition and development of supervision in the elementary schools. For the secondary school there is no counterpart. The majority of high-school teachers have not received professional training of any kind prior to their first jobs. They are merely college graduates. The acquisition of certain degrees, has seemingly prepared them to teach in all units of public education. These college graduates, suddenly turned to the field of teaching, enter, for the most part, the small high schools. The larger schools insist upon experience and experience, such as it is, must be obtained in the smaller schools. In these latter schools the principal is usually as much a neophyte in the art of instructing youth as the members of his staff. If experience and training are his, use of them is generally nullified by his own heavy program of teaching, plus a multiplicity of management detail which is overwhelming. Often in such situations, the superintendent presents a similar picture; and generally, the major portion of his supervisory interest and time are given to the lower grades.

Out of such conditions, in general, the inexperienced, untrained college graduate becomes in time, an experienced instructor and passes on to the higher salaries of the larger schools. Habits and methods, to large degree, have become formulated and static. These teachers have learned to teach, perforce, as they were taught. Oddly enough, such methods have usually been quite sufficient for the definitely specialized, strongly formal, and traditional subject-matter of the high school.

The small high-school principal, likewise gradually advances to a larger school. He is usually selected for such advancement by reason of his personal qualities plus the ability he has demonstrated in the organization and administration of his school. Rarely, if ever, is his promotion dependent upon what he has done specifically to improve the quality of classroom instruction. The latter is usually taken for granted as a by-product of successful management. The principal's

teaching experience is generally meagre and unnoticed. Once, particularly in New England, and vestiges may still be found, the principal or headmaster, by virtue of his position was, first of all the head teacher. Accordingly, he taught the most important of all subjects, the subject through which all pedagogy has been most unchanging and unchangeable. And that same Roman influence was observable in all his contacts with the school. This tradition has been powerful in shaping the attitude of principals. But again, generally, the advancing principal with teaching experience often outstanding in its limitations, has been forced to forego teaching altogether and immerse himself in an overwhelming burden of organization and managerial duties. Meanwhile the larger the high school involved, the less help is forthcoming from the superintendent.

In the middle and larger schools there are often department heads. When there are such, the reduction in teaching load is usually merely sufficient to provide some additional time for routine duties connected with books, supplies or details of management. As supervisors of instruction most department heads fail to function either because of lack of time or ability or both.

The lack of professionally trained teachers and principals, the inheritance of formal and traditional subject-matter, the dominance of the highly specialized requirements of higher schools and the huge enrollments, prohibitory of cost extension, other than for the basic provision of rooms and full time teachers, are briefly, some of the most important factors which have hindered the development of supervision in the secondary school.

Though there are exceptions to this rather sombre picture and recently a much more hopeful attitude is abroad, yet it is quite apparent that the major problem of supervision in secondary schools is one of adequate recognition. Recognition which will come through the development of more suitable professional training schools for high-school teachers and principals; recognition by school boards, in stipulating definitely such training for incoming high-school teachers and principals; recognition by superintendents of schools that they should place more definite responsibility upon themselves and upon their high-school principals for obtaining a balanced program of supervision in the secondary school. The more complete development and broader standardization of state and other accrediting agencies

will be of much valuable influence in gaining desirable recognition. These are some general factors which may aid in developing a co-operative outlook favorable to the growth of an adequate conception of the art of supervision.

The specific problem which follows the general one of recognition has to do with the place and character of the supervisor in the development of supervision. Much has been said about the high-school principal as the supervisor of instruction. Ideally he has been named as the proper supervisor. Upon analysis it may be found that this customary conception is open to much qualification. Conditions in the small high school, already referred to, make the principal either unsuitable or unavailable.

In schools with less than 200 enrolled (an arbitrary number, merely indicative) it may be strongly argued that it is the obligation of the superintendent to meet the problem of supervision in the secondary school as fully as in the grades. The high school is much more in need of trained and experienced service. The superintendent, generally, is more mature, more experienced, more permanent than the high-school principal. A wide recognition of the responsibility of the superintendent for at least, more specific leadership in the solution of this problem might clarify and develop the existing situation to great advantage.

In schools with enrollment between 200 and 1000 (again merely an indicative spread for general groupings) the problem is obviously more clearly up to the principal alone. For this reason he is all the more in need of help. Though the superintendent can give less time to the high school, in systems large enough to support high schools within this great middle grouping; he can easily be of much more help to the principal than is generally true. It is not unreasonable to expect that a program of supervision should make both superintendent and principal effectively operative in its development. However well such a program is planned the chief load will rightly devolve upon the principal. Schools of this size, in the main, will not be able to support trained and capable department leaders. Leadership in supervision as well as in other things must be the definite obligation of the principal of the middle-sized high school. For such leadership he must obtain; specific, adequate training in well established schools of education. The summer school, of necessity, must play an important

part in such training, for most of the specific preparation will become effective after the teacher has become a principal on the job. Much of the training will be vitalized by the use of the position in the field as the medium for experiment and practice. The principal who is to supervise must know the characteristics of good teaching. He must learn and apply the art of supervision in a variety of forms. If he is to do all this, school boards and superintendents must make it possible through adequate office assistance both clerical and managerial. Until this latter is reasonably done the immediacy of business management, startlingly insistent in the modern high school, will preclude the principal's satisfactory leadership in the improvement of classroom teaching.

In schools larger than 1000 in enrollment capable and properly trained assistants to the principal are possibilities. They may be departmental leaders, curriculum or subject supervisors or assistant principals especially selected for instructional supervision. For the principal of one of the large schools to supervise satisfactorily, the instruction in the broad and varied fields of the modern curriculum, as it exists in our large secondary schools is, in most cases, to beg the issue. He must, perforce, become a general manager; and if he devotes anything like the time to supervision which should be given, other phases of his school organization will suffer to the extent that there will be serious interference with instruction. If the principal of the large school is especially qualified in the art of supervision, then, he should delegate many important managerial and executive duties to capable assistants and give largely of his time to classroom supervision. Few, if any, principals are as well qualified for detailed and specific supervision as departmental specialists. The principal of the large school, as far as intelligent practice is concerned must, of necessity become a supervisor of especially trained and appointed officers of supervision. His great obligation to the supervision of instruction is likely to be that of coördinating and articulating the work of several supervisory assistants, a challenging, necessary and skilled work in itself. From this brief analysis it becomes obvious that the size of the school and the qualifying conditions must determine the nature of the executive plan for supervision.

We have stated that the accepted interpretation of supervision is in respect to the improvement of classroom instruction. The oldest and most firmly established conception of supervision carries the idea

of classroom observation by an officer who is superior to the teacher. This officer is to make constructive suggestions relative to the organization of subject matter and the method of developing the lesson. While this conception of supervision properly carried forward should be productive of valuable results; it is too often the sum total of the supervision within a given school. Such supervision is good as far as it goes; but it should be emphasized that there are many other phases of supervision which are intimately related to the teaching process and fully as necessary to the improvement of learning.

The principal who faces the problem of supervision squarely, whatever the conditions, will first, view the situation administratively. He will organize a plan of supervision. Not a highly complex and mechanical arrangement which will be put into effect by the issuing of a bulletin or sudden announcement in faculty meeting but rather a plan which will be of a gradual developmental character. A plan which will provide for the working out of several phases of the whole problem with correlation and coördination as rapid as the school may be carried along in effective spirit and work.

The first step in such a plan would be that of encouraging the training of teachers in service. This is an effective way of improving classroom work by obtaining the interest of the teacher in attacking the problem through sustained personal effort. Professionalized activities by departmental, faculty and extension groups, individual research and study, summer school work, all of these will give strong impetus to the growth of the necessary professional spirit and will give much aid in solving the difficult technical phase of the problem.

A plan of supervision will also include the professionalized faculty meeting as a medium of coöperative enterprise and common understanding of problems intimately related to the classroom. The importance and the place of the assignment as a simple factor in classroom procedure may easily form an excellent project for faculty discussion and realization. Such an opening followed by observation, demonstration, and report could be carried throughout the school as a special project in supervision. This accomplished, another phase of supervision could be advanced and similarly developed. By a developmental plan of this character the principal can learn and apply the technique of supervision as his teachers practice the technique of teaching.

A definite supervision program should recognize pupil control and management and the physical conditions of the classroom as a specific phase of the general problem. These are considerations basic to the best teaching. Oftentimes, there is much confusion incident to inspection as supervision or supervision as inspection. For purposes of efficiency inspection should be recognized as merely a definite part of the whole program. Much argument can be advanced for inspection in relation to physical conditions, pupil control, and for checking certain specified phases of class procedure. However, it should always be understood as merely a legitimate follow-up efficiency procedure and surely never as the sum or emphasized part of the supervision program. It should not be permitted to operate alone but as a well understood item among several more important parts of the general scheme.

Once there is an attitude within the school favorable to constructive progress in educational method, there comes the challenge of the curriculum. One of the most important phases of the problem of supervision is that connected with the selection and organization of the subject matter to be taught. The relation of this question to the improvement of teaching is obvious. A successful plan of supervision will provide for the constant reorganization and adjustment of content with corresponding discovery and application of suitable classroom methods. An answer to the inevitable question: What shall we teach, raises, at once, the insistently pertinent question, how shall we teach it? The supervision of instruction if intelligently done, demands selection of text and organization of content conforming to the needs of the school population. It means supervising outlines of work, consideration of method in advance and the preparation of daily plans.

Now the alert principal will not be content with merely starting things. He will insist on knowing what happens. His whole program of supervision will be objective in its character. He will test the component parts of his plan. He will be especially interested in knowing whether the sum total of his plan has made a difference in the quality of the educational process. Unquestionably a very important phase of his program is that which has to do with the measuring of classroom instruction. To what end all the effort over the supervision problem unless results are checked. The knowledge of

results may easily disclose the need and furnish the starting point for definite supervisory practice.

More objective material is necessary. Standardized subject-matter tests are increasingly available. Tests of such character should and can be developed by the local school as a part of the program of supervision. An attempt to improve the testing practice will open up the whole problem of instruction. Curriculum matter must be selected, organized, certain essential parts emphasized, and non-essentials eliminated. If teachers' results are to be evaluated, charted, compared, methods of obtaining the best results are, at once, in demand. The principal who interests himself in supervising a subject testing program will do much to forward the cause of efficient instruction in his school.

Perhaps the most marked weakness in supervision has been that of insufficient standards. The question of standards for measuring classroom instruction has been extremely difficult in the secondary school. The multiplicity of specialized subjects, each with its own peculiar technique has made the setting up of suitable standards exceedingly complicated. Once the various phases which have been mentioned as necessary parts of a balanced program of supervision have been worked out in a given school, they will tend to create a set of standards for that school. It will be the particular job of the principal to keep such a set of standards refined to the best thought and practice available. But this will not be sufficient. The principals as a group need very greatly to study this problem of standards of supervision for secondary schools. A pooling of efforts and findings will aid in clarifying the existent haze on this important problem. In time, supervision will, of necessity, be based upon a set of principles and standards with accompanying procedures which have survived through experiment and demonstration to convincing proof.

This statement on supervision, necessarily brief and general in its character has not made any attempt to develop argument for supervision. The necessity and importance of supervision have been assumed. There has been no attempt to present its technique. We have been interested in defining the problem which supervision faces in the secondary school; and in offering somewhat comprehensively, the attitude of some of the principals.

At the close of his paper, President Bacon introduced William McAndrew, sometime Superintendent of Schools of Chicago, who was given an ovation by the great audience. Mr. McAndrew spoke without notes on *High-School Supervision from the Viewpoint of the Superintendent*.

SUPERVISION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE
SUPERINTENDENT

WILLIAM McANDREW,

EDITOR, *Educational Review*

Most of the superintendents of my acquaintance see the high-school workers confronted with a bewildering change of circumstances and problems. Those good people need all the sympathy, help, and guidance the heads of their school systems can give them.

Many of you present who are not yet Methuselahs—may you continue your service through vigorous maturity, rich in days abounding in good works—can remember when high schools regarded themselves as constituted for sifting from the product of the elementary schools the most scholarly, and for maintaining through four years a still further selective process, determining who might pass on to higher education. You had the entrance examinations required for admission to high school. You recall Maxwell, voicing in his annual report, only twenty-five years ago, his conviction, a common one, that —“many children get into high school who should not be there at all.” You are familiar with the old high-school slogan, “through the survival of the fittest we train for leadership.” As compared with their present perplexities the task of the high-school teacher was simple, indeed. His children had a definite college entrance standard to attain. A teacher made no study of teaching. He could give out lessons, hear them recited, put marks in a book, and draw his pay. His pupils were selected on the basis of ability and desire to learn.

Now comes the astounding revolution! Compulsory laws extend the school age. Everybody goes to high school. Over three millions are in the public institutions of secondary education. The amazing increase of 610% confronts these schools. The common-minded, the lazy, the uninterested, the mental pauper—all are in a refectory whose

menu and service were planned for the select, robust appetites of a few. It is a situation which no ridicule of methods, however inept they may be, can greatly help. It is a case for compassion, for constructive sympathy, for intelligent guidance by the head of the school force.

Tell Them the Truth.—It is no kindness for a superintendent to feed the high-school people with honeydew. He who called himself the Third Napoleon was given that diet until he thought he had an invincible fighting organization. When he put his troops against a real army it was crumpled in a few days. The sorriest thing a superintendent can do is to let the high-school principals get their heads into the sand. The futility of continuing high schools on the old basis needs especially to be sensed by the superintendent. His responsibility demands that unpleasant facts be known about what is now the most expensive and least efficient part of the public-school service.

Let him be sure that the high-school managers realize that college preparation is not now their main business. The high schools are paid for by every person in the town. From every cent spent for anything, a part goes to the high-school tax. Unless one keeps that essential fact near the top of his consciousness, he will run a high school for getting a few boys and girls into college. But, as Thomas Finegan hammered into the Pennsylvanians, "Every child of fourteen is a high-school obligation, not to prepare so much for residence in the University of Pennsylvania as for contributing benefit to the State of Pennsylvania."

Let the superintendent see that the high-school people appreciate the hollowness of the old training-for-leadership fallacy. It was a high-sounding cymbal, mere noise. Those who had innate power of leadership, no doubt got into high schools where, in sooth, they were so diverted by scholarship and pedantry from the paths in which America needs to be led that we see our educational products playing golf on election day while the real leaders, who never saw the interior of a high school, are herding their votes to the polls to keep in power the sorriest set of statesmen to be found in any country on the globe.

Let the superintendent, while praising honest and intelligent effort of high-school people, see that they realize the growing power of Dr. Pritchett's protest against rising costs, the formidable movement of chambers of commerce, of granges, of associations of mayors, and of

governors, seriously inquiring whether the American people are getting a fair return for what in many localities is much the largest item in the public budget. We have the advantage of a supreme American faith in education. The marvelous growth of the demand for it should not lull us into complacency. The amount and keenness of criticism from without is growing.

Meantime our own school people have developed a discontent with high-school results which no superintendent may ignore. I see some men here who remember Jacob Gould Schurman's criticism of us at the Poughkeepsie meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, well back in the last century. You remember him deploring that we were organized on the basis of teaching subjects. "Your high schools," he said, "are bibliocentric, or thermocentric, directed towards imparting the contents of a book or covering a course of study. What the country needs is a more paidocentric service in which the high school will determine what the boy is, who comes; what he ought to be, who leaves; how he can be made to grow from one to the other. We need a service," he said, "which shall deliver that kind of American who will render the social, civic, political service for which the makers of America instituted public schools and made them a tax on all people whether parents or not." You remember at that meeting McKen Catell proposed that by tests and measurements we should determine whether high schools are doing their work. It seemed Utopian. Yet now comes Henry Morrison with the most talked-of book of the time and shows us that by centering on the subject, by mere covering of the lesson, we have seasoned society with a distressingly large proportion of people who know education as a partial performance of tasks only up to a low average that will relieve the doer of requirement to undertake them a second term. It is a cause for congratulation that the proposition of Catell and Rice and Ayers and others, to devise a means of knowing how well a school is succeeding, is worked out in this enheartening Morrison book to a system of simple mastery units for every high-school activity, with means of demonstrating in greater accuracy than ever before that they are really mastered.

You will remember, too, James Russell's *Excursions through German Schools* before the war and his book, the essence of which is that those people know what they are aiming at and how to hit it;

ours don't. Now comes David Snedden with a whole book on what's wrong with American Education. The theme of his high-school chapters is, "Nobody Knows. Nobody knows why Latin, plane geometry, and chemistry are taught in high school, nobody knows whether English as taught in high school functions as worthwhile culture, nobody knows whether history in high school has well defined objectives of civic conduct. Of belief and faith, we have much," he says, "but of sound, dependable knowledge, none." It reminds you of Paul Hanus's figure of the high school: a great ship with all sails set and going nowhere; or, of the subject of a New Jersey Education Association meeting: "Resolved that the high school is a chaos." Of the notable number of books on high-school management coming from the press in the past five years, the conclusion of those by both the Douglasses, by Hollister, by Uhl, by Barr and Burton, by Judd, by Snedden, is "the work of the high school leaves much to be desired."

The constructive, optimistic Morrison declares the result of these four years upon our youth, at the time when their duty in the world begins naturally to dawn, is "the making of an adult incapable citizen albeit he may be legally entitled to vote and hold office."

Supervision, the Answer.—What is the remedy? All the students of productive organization answer, "supervision." The workers require guidance. Percival Hulson, who was awarded one of the Sachs prizes for an essay on high-school improvement, reaches the conclusion that the teachers are not prepared for what the high school should do. Edward Fitzpatrick, the other prize winner, reports thousands of instructors, whose only teaching preparation was for English, found in charge of classes in geometry, French, and domestic science. Hundreds of high schools are like a fake hospital whose specialists qualifications are that once they had the measles or the smallpox. Williams Burton's book puts first the training of teachers now in the service. John Withers makes it the immediate paramount need. Barr and Burton feel justified in saying that supervision is already recognized as the foundation on which school procedure must be built. They add these requirements to training those already in service. Second, employment of only teachers who are adequately trained for teaching. Third, reorganization of the school activities with definite human abilities in view. Fourth, testing and measuring the results

and improving them. And Fifth, appraising the work of separate teachers and replacing those who fail to meet requirements.

This is a formidable task enlisting the highest ability and courage of superintendent and principal. "It is not," said the progressive Professor Inglis, within a short walk of this spot, "so much of a problem to improve high-school supervision as how to get any." While, a thousand miles further west, Professor Judd responded, "The part of the high school job poorest done is supervision. It needs a tonic dose of honest self-criticism."

Obstacles.—To have such agreement among the bookmakers that supervision is the high schools' greatest need is something, but who thinks human nature rushes gladly to the benefits conferable by the supervisor? Douglas Waples ought to know. His book is the result of wise acquaintance with us. He remarks, "Few high-school teachers get any supervision. They don't want it. It is considered bad form for a teacher to admit the need of help with school problems." Out on the shores of the Peaceful Sea, where every prospect pleases and only man is vile, a gentle and sympathetic woman, Susan Dorsey, grieves over teachers who, shouting for liberty, refuse freedom by creating an atmosphere of strife in their own souls against the imagined bondage of supervision. If you tell them that all the tests establish that the best method is this one; they immediately want to do differently.

On the Eastern coast is Hosic declaring that "where supervision is functioning there is little excuse for agitation for democracy in the school system. Under the disguise of academic freedom they want the liberty of wasting youthful lives and setting up the ugly form of teacher Bolshevism."

Let the superintendent realize that a principal who sets out to get each member of his corps to use the road which surveyors have agreed is the safest and best often has a backwash of teachers who flood the offices of the superintendent and of board members with complaints which would make workers in other lines laugh and wonder. New York held meetings of protest against the raising of requirements of new entrants into teaching. "Teachers to Arms," read the circular, "Your rights are assailed. A tyranny more dire than that against which your fathers fought is upon us." In Chicago, a circular assembling the friends of freedom recounted that the

principal invaded the classroom, sat in a back seat, took notes and imposed them on the teacher." These things impress the honorable, the members of the board of education. A distressed gentlewoman, tastefully clad, inevitably awakens the chivalry of the layman. He who would dismiss a neglectful nurse, however beautiful, will gallantly champion a handsome incompetent if she is merely wasting the lives of a few score of other people's children. Let a superintendent support his honest and thorough people against the opposition of his board and note what happens to him. Ettinger resents the proposed replacement of hard-working progressive Edson. Ettinger protests the promotion of an unscrupulous woman school politician. Ettinger insists that the judgment of a school system shall be based upon the measured accomplishment of it as shown by standard tests. Ettinger refuses to permit a political school board to violate the law secured by years of struggle against political domination. What does his board? Discontinues him. Finegan reorganizes the supervision of the schools of Pennsylvania. By the opinion of all those open-eyed observers, the travelling bookmen, Pennsylvania schools came up into the van. What happens to Finegan? Politicians pinch him out. What did Baltimore do to Van Sickle and West? Newark, to Corson? Terre Haute, to Englemann? What were the deeds of that choir invisible, the company of superintendents that were? Winship has told us that more school men lose their positions for improving the service than for leaving it as it is. This leads your John Beveridge to tell the life insurance men that school superintendency is the most hazardous of all occupations. This leads to a type of supervision by principals and superintendents of the sort that justified Dr. Eliot to tell this Association that school service is fifty years behind the science of it. This produces the "inspirational address" and a sort of evangelical supervision in which the Third-Napoleon-fallacy persists in telling teachers how noble, conscientious, and able they are, with no other basis for the declaration than a desire to please.

Coffman sneers at us when he quotes a well-known superintendent of 1917: "The business of a supervisor is to cast a genial influence over his schools, but otherwise he is not to interfere with the work." As long as I can remember, the favorite pose of principal and superintendent has been that of a dear little Coué, saying to all his school people, "Every day in every way you're getting better and better and better." The result may be a coming Gravelotte and Sedan. It may

be a setback resulting from the protests of the Pritchetts, the Lowells, the granges, the chambers of commerce and the associations of the mayors and governors. But that is not the main consideration. The question is what is the chief end of principal and superintendent? Truly there is no respectable theory of their service other than to do their stint in a thorough and workmanlike manner. Let the ax fall where it may—good-bye popularity.

Let them each, therefore, throw away those shiny baubles of long ago: poise, creed, personality, and the attainment of popularity. Nobody really loves a lazy commander. The old conception of principal as foster father to delightful boys and girls is not satisfying the Pritchetts. "The principal is on the platform; let all the school keep silence before him," hasn't brought us any whither worth coming to. Let the superintendent now say, "My son, your main business is with teachers; not with pupils and parents. Let me see your plan of organization. Simple Simon had not any, but he is dead at present. The motto of efficient service, as Thomas Briggs reminds us, is organize, deputize, supervise. Let me see your plan; your institution is part of the public school system. I am responsible for it. I want to know how you deputize the supervision of the English teachers, of the Latin teachers, and of all the people who teach anything. I want to know what you do to see that the habits of penmanship, language, and other things that we have built up at much expense in the lower schools are prescribed in yours. I want you and your deputed supervisors to get into those schools enough to know how they are doing things so that you may direct your people to work accordingly." (Head Architect Burnham had the planners of every building in the great World's Fair inspect the whole plan *every morning* to get unity, harmony, and completeness.) "I want you to tell me what abilities you expect your children to have at definite periods. I'll send somebody to go and find out by tests whether they have those abilities. What book on high-school supervision do you set most store by? What have you learned about the attention-holding quotient of your various teachers? What mastery units have you decided on for your history? Have you made them few and simple enough to leave the teachers time for their favorite and valuable hobbies? Understand, my son, that I am not trying to dominate you, dear no. I merely want to be sure that you are making a business of your business and not running a Sunday School in

which nobody interferes with teachers. I want you to understand I'm with you. Your success is my chief desire. If you have superintenditis, I consider that all right too. Although to tell the honest truth high-school principals are happier. So organize, my son, organize and deputize, and supervise. I'll back you. Tell your teachers they mustn't run to me. I'll hear them, of course, but never unless you're present."

That, ladies and gentlemen, is high-school supervision from a superintendent's standpoint. He can't help high-school education much unless he can get principals to roll up their sleeves and remake their high-school systems. They need sympathy and help. They have inherited a silk mill, built and equipped to weave the most delicate threads into ornamental patterns. A cataclysmic change has dumped among their raw material wool and flax, sisal, hemp, and wood pulp. They must be helped so to reorganize as to deliver a well-woven useful fabric suitable for stout sails for the ship of state.

Who despairs?

So far as I can see, every one worth knowing is glad that the hundred researchers in the laboratories of the schools of education and, under their inspiration, teachers in the classrooms of high schools are reducing our profession from a mess of glittering generalities to a nearer approach to a science of surety. We want to be in line with the progress of those material constructionists who can build a car that inevitably runs, who manage a railroad that gets you to your goal. We want to be in the class of those engineers in human welfare who know they can prevent cholera and yellow fever, who know an increasingly number of diseases they can cure. All around us in the humbler occupations we see the conquering of uncertainty as in that beautiful rhythmic sign in Albany, "No woman so fat but we can make her stylish," or that other proud boast of a master of trade on Warren Street, New York, "You don't have to try on the pants I make for you."

From these ridiculous examples to that sublime realization of the hope of the fathers is a step, long enough, no doubt. But the best men of our time have faith that the schools can take it, for from Washington to Coolidge it has been the faith of the fathers that the schools are the hope of the world.

President Gwinn then introduced Miss Cornelia S. Adair, President of the National Education Association who presented from her manuscript, *Supervision from the Viewpoint of the Teacher*.

THE VIEWPOINT OF THE TEACHER*

CORNELIA S. ADAIR,

PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

When one considers the topic "What Teachers Want in Supervision," another question arises in the mind demanding instant solution, "Why Is Supervision?" Mature consideration of the two questions brings to light the fact that there is little if any difference between what teachers want in supervision and what other thoughtful educational workers want. The ultimate aim and measure of all supervision is the progress of the child. All school machinery exists that his growth may be guided in the right direction. That teacher is greatest who creates within the school an atmosphere of freedom, growth, and responsibility. That principal is greatest who gives teachers the maximum freedom and who secures the largest growth and self imposed responsibility. That superintendent is greatest who is most able to develop principals and teachers and to keep them free in their work with the children. That system of city or state supervision is best which fosters the finest adaptation of the schools in each local community to the highest needs and ideals of that community.

Supervision has been influenced in spirit and method by the shift from autocracy to democracy in the management of human life. While there is still much in our educational practice that belongs to the Middle Ages, steady and substantial progress is being made in the direction of wiser and more wholesome methods of handling people.

This is nowhere better illustrated than in the epoch-making Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence on the Development of the High-School Curriculum. This yearbook is literally an example of *super vision*. It is the vision of the best minds in American education working on the greatest collection of facts relating to the

*An address made before the National Association of Secondary School Principals, February 28, 1928.

secondary school ever brought together. Its aim is not uniformity or standardization in the narrow sense, but diversity and the adaptation of the school to the needs of individual children and of the various communities. Its aim is not to enslave the teacher to a fixed way of doing things, but to free the teacher by bringing out the facts and the principles so that they may be applied in the re-adaptation of our secondary schools.

This is a democratic attitude. In this Yearbook is also found a clear statement of the responsibility of the secondary school for *all* adolescent youth rather than merely for a part of them. The high school of the past may have excluded many pupils because they were restless or uninterested or could not profit from what it had to offer. The high school of to-morrow, following the lines laid down in this Yearbook, will find a way to meet the needs of all youth. It will recognize clearly that the pupils who tend to drop out at early ages are often the ones who need the atmosphere of the school most. Supervision developed in accord with this ideal will lead teachers to elevate student growth above the mere mastery of subject matter. This does not mean that we shall value scholarship less but rather that we shall value growth and the all around development of young people more.

Modern supervision recognizes the simple principle that children grow through their own activity. It seeks therefore to guide and direct their activity and not to repress it unnecessarily. Through the teachings of John Dewey, which have profoundly influenced educational theory and practice there runs the doctrine of guided growth. This great philosopher emphasized the need of a kind of supervision which shall give to the individual child greater freedom and responsibility. Under the Dewey dispensation each school is a little society in which the embryo citizen under simple and guided conditions is enabled to make his mistakes and learn his lessons protected from the exploitation and the penalties of a selfish and competitive civilization. If a child is to grow there must be things to do that involve more than mere verbal situations. Progress is not made by don'ts and stops. Necessary as these may be at times, they are not the normal approach to growth, and joy, and power.

Just as the supervision of children has been made more constructive by the modern educational advance, so has the supervision of teaching become a profession in itself. The development of the departments within the National Education Association suggests this

growth. The Department of Secondary-School Principals is larger than the whole Association was a few years ago. It is a far cry from the so-called early supervision which consisted of an occasional visit to the school by the district trustees, to the highly trained, sympathetic, and efficient supervision of the modern school principal and his staff.

This development has been made possible by the improvement in the status and training of teachers. If teachers are to be free and effective in the larger sense—if they are really to be great technicians as well as fine and noble personalities—they must be well trained. It is for this reason that the National Education Association has said that every teacher should have four years of training beyond the four-year high school.

The growth of the teacher training movement is most encouraging. Normal schools are becoming teachers colleges. Two-year normal schools are becoming three-year schools. Attendance at summer schools is increasing. During the summer of 1927, according to figures published in *THE JOURNAL* of the National Education Association, 250,000 teachers took courses in education. Study on the part of teachers in service has also grown until in cities like New York, Boston, Cleveland, and Detroit there are thousands of practising teachers who take extension courses from the best talent in the teacher training field. Cincinnati put into operation in September a salary schedule which encourages training for all teachers through the four year level and beyond.

Directing the work of a corps of teachers such as is being built up in Cincinnati is very different from the sort of petty direction required for many teachers in rural communities who have had no professional training at all. This petty supervision, which may have been inevitable in the pioneer stages of teaching, becomes less and less necessary as teachers improve in training and working skill. Early supervision was often unwelcome because its real purpose was misunderstood both by the teacher and by the supervisor. Sometimes supervision is not kindly received because of the personality or spirit of the supervisor himself. But such cases are growing rarer as the principles of supervision are becoming better understood.

Supervision has to do with the improvement of the teaching act, the selection of organization of subject matter, testing and measuring,

and the improvement of teachers in service. Everyone grants that the principal aim of supervision is the improvement of teaching. This end will be accomplished by inspiring and encouraging the good teacher to further study and experimentation, and by redirecting and improving the work of the average and the poor teacher.

Good supervision has definite, well understood standards and a well organized program. It is essentially a coöperative procedure. It supplies the means which enable teachers to live up to the set standards and to carry out the authorized program.

One who goes about as an inspector or detective will not gain coöperation. He will never see the best work of teachers, because of the nervous strain to which he subjects them. A dictator is of no real assistance to teachers! What teachers need is inspirational leadership. Much that is superimposed is valueless. Encouragement and suggestions together with helpful demonstrations will build up a teaching morale worthy of the name.

In their supervisors, teachers hope to see the qualities they themselves should possess and more. They demand in them a certain amount of personality and enough power to inspire confidence in their professional ability. They want them to have a thorough knowledge of the art of teaching and willingness to make, occasionally at least, a carefully detailed study of a recitation before entering upon any criticism of it. In conference, teachers would have their supervisors speak sincerely, make a simple straight forward statement of facts, and give them an opportunity to do likewise.

I must pause to make a special plea for better supervision in rural schools. In spite of our theory that every child should have a fair start in life, it is possible to find in many states of the union wonderful city schools side by side with rural schools that are utterly inadequate when measured by the needs and standards of modern life. Too often county and even state superintendents are selected for petty political reasons rather than for educational qualifications. The National Education Association has said in its resolutions that such officers should be chosen by lay boards—that they should be selected not from the small areas they are to serve, but from the best talent available anywhere in the country.

Only thus can we bring to rural schools the professional supervision which they need even more than city schools. In spite of the

rich educational materials that lie at its very doors; in spite of the crying needs of rural life for a curriculum that will develop men and women able to deal with rural problems in a large way, the course of study in rural schools is in sad need of revision. Few workers are trained to undertake the task. It has been made evident by the studies of the Curriculum Commission of the Department of Superintendence that the typical high school is still the small semi-rural high school. And yet how few there are at work on its problems!

Beyond the work of the principal there is in every school system a wider direction—perhaps more accurately called administration than supervision—which concerns intimately the growth of every child and teacher. Consider for example the sweeping implication of the course of study itself—a schedule of work which largely determines all school activities.

Every educational system which tries to keep its education abreast of the needs of a rapidly changing civilization must wage a constant battle to keep its course of study flexible enough to be in accordance with the needs of the children. Courses of study reflect child needs best when they are the product of the coöperative effort of teachers and supervisors. Curriculum building has proven one of the best means yet found for training teachers in service. As such it yields advantages to the school system in ways not obtainable through other processes of supervision. It helps to train each teacher to study the problems of the individual child. It encourages them to seek a new content in education and to vitalize the old content by more effective forms of organization and interpretation. It inspires to wider vision.

Supervision once meant inspection. Later it meant petty dictation. Now it means inspiring leadership. For the masses of teachers this leadership will be associated more and more with supervising principals of broad training and fine personal character.

As Van Dyke sang the praise of the unknown teacher, may I sing the praise of the unknown principal? Great superintendents plan school systems, but the principal leads and guides the teachers. He communicates his own joy in service and shares with them the treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which in later years will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.

I have chosen to develop the meaning of supervision in this broader setting rather than in its narrower definition, because it has seemed

possible thereby to emphasize the new ideals that are guiding not only school management, but also sound management in business, in industry, and in the home.

What teachers want—what we all want—most in supervision is leadership, human, constructive, inspiring. We want our leaders to be men and women of sterling character, possessed of penetrating discernment, boundless sympathy and an insatiable desire for the complete development of youth. We want them rich in experience and culture, open-minded in training, clear-eyed in purpose, embodying in their personalities high ideals of work, lofty standards of achievement, and a keen dissatisfaction with less than our best.

President Bacon then presented Charles H. Judd, Director of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, who read his paper, *Can Supervision Be Made Scientific?*

CAN HIGH-SCHOOL SUPERVISION BE MADE SCIENTIFIC?

CHARLES H. JUDD,

DIRECTOR, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

High-school supervision cannot be made scientific without arduous labor. There are unfortunately some people who think that science is easy to inject into all kinds of situations. For example, a principal writes to a college professor as follows, "Our school has a six period program; each period is 55 minutes in length. Do you think this program is too heavy for pupils of high-school age?" The college professor who gets this letter knows that the principal who wrote it is in trouble with a local physician, or with the president and secretary of his parents' association. What the principal wants is a document that he can lay before his board with the statement that it comes from a scientific expert. There is a quieting effect on some boards of education in the words "scientific expert." The local physician is scientific; members of boards of education know about scientific business management. If the principal can get a pronouncement from someone far enough away from his town, he may be able to convince his board that he is operating under the sanctions of science.

I shall not pursue this matter of the correspondence between the principal and the college professor further lest it lead to revelations which probably ought not to be made public. My purpose is served if I add the statement that no one knows whether that program is too heavy or not until he has studied the situation with sufficient care and detail to arrive at a verifiable conclusion based on facts not supplied in the off-hand letter. The get-scientific-quick method of extricating one's self from supervisory difficulties may serve the temporary purpose of quieting an aroused community, but it is not a safe or valid method of scientific control for the schools.

There are some principals who are willing to go further than to write letters to supposed experts. They go so far as to take a summer quarter course or two in the science of education. They establish themselves after these courses on the firm ground of one of the leading scientific generalizations and begin operation. There came into my hands some time ago an application for a fellowship. The applicant was a high-school principal. Among the achievements which he enumerated as entitling him to favorable consideration was one on which he laid great stress, evidently considering it a mark of the most advanced training and an evidence of his determination to be in the front rank of educational scientists. He said, "Since I came to this school, I have completely reorganized the method of marking. Every teacher in this school now follows strictly the normal curve in distributing his or her marks."

I have a vivid picture in my imagination of the way in which the teachers in that school have been browbeaten into adopting the normal curve. I can see the pride with which this enthusiastic youth looks over the bookkeeping which he has perfected and reports to the neighboring county institute the unqualified success of his efforts to bring science into a situation which was formerly conducted in utter ignorance of the findings of the best educational research.

I trust that no one will misunderstand my position. The normal curve is a most useful instrument in the hands of one who understands its value. I know of no more stimulating method of inducing teachers to study the whole problem of developing an equitable system of grading pupils than to have them compare the distribution of their own marks with those of other teachers and with the normal curve. On the other hand, I know of nothing more stupid than to

dictate as a matter of invariable rule that the normal curve shall be followed rigidly by all teachers in the distribution of their marks. The trouble with the young applicant whom I quoted is that he had too slight an acquaintance with the normal curve.

It would be possible to offer an endless number of examples of what may properly be called ignorant enthusiasm for the science of education. The latest which came to my attention was in the form of an article submitted for publication to the *School Review*. The article in question was written by a professor in a university department of modern languages. He had evidently participated in some of the testing initiated by the national commission in charge of the Modern Language Inquiry. Evidently also, he had never heard of the long labors by which educational tests in other fields have been refined. He wrote in glowing terms of a new educational era when other subjects in the curriculum will adopt the practice which the modern languages have found to be productive, namely, the practice of judging the success or non-success of instruction by tests. He pointed out that tests will show any teacher exactly how the results secured in his class compare with results secured elsewhere. The writer of this article urged all schools and colleges to use tests. The author evidently felt it to be his duty to bring the overwhelming importance of tests to the attention of a hitherto unenlightened public. Our editorial board considered seriously publishing this article as a means of introducing a little humor into the sometimes too somber pages of the *School Review*.

There would be very little justification for the present paper if it could contribute nothing but examples of the misuse of the science of education. I have ventured to report such cases as I have cited because I believe the science of education is in critical need of a kind of support which the great body of administrators do not fully understand. The science of education requires at this moment the expenditure of an enormous amount of energy. The science of education is understaffed and undersupported. The number of workers who are attempting to carry on educational research is pitifully small and wholly inadequate to the demands. I have thought of this occasion as a strategic opportunity to make a plea for a new type of support for the scientific study of high-school problems. I shall try to persuade you that the high schools of this country must think of their task in a new way. I shall try to convince you that it is

expedient and economical for high schools to become centers for the scientific study of the problems of adolescent education.

Let me be concrete. I remember some years ago visiting the New York City High School of Commerce when the late Mr. Shepard was principal. There was a record in the principal's office of the activities of each of the teachers in the school. The record showed what subjects the teachers taught, how many pupils were in each class, how many pupils passed and failed, and so on. There was one item in the record which interested me very much. It showed how many pupils in each class elected a related subject during the year following instruction by a given teacher. I was interested in this item because it revealed very clearly the fact that some teachers influenced their pupils positively while others did not. I recall that there was one teacher of mathematics whose pupils in large percentage went on with advanced courses in that field and that there was another teacher working under almost identical conditions as to subjects of instruction and numbers of pupils whose influence was almost zero as shown by subsequent elections.

It required some energy to compile the records to which I have referred and there were a number of items on which information was collected year after year which did not seem to be as significant as the one which I selected for special comment. The energy required for the compiling of the record undoubtedly lessened the amount of time which someone could expend in supervising extra-curriculum activities or in holding conferences with parents or teachers or in performing some of the other duties which principals ordinarily think of as normal routine. I do not hesitate, however, to assert that such careful and complete records kept in every school in this country would give an objectivity and precision to high-school supervision which are at present largely lacking.

Why is there so little work done in high-school offices in the preparation and study of scientific material on which supervision is to be based? We all know the excuse commonly offered. It is said that there are no funds available for such records. Or it is said that the principal is so fully occupied that he cannot find time to think of such matters.

At the risk of making a statement that will not be palatable to some of the members of my audience, I shall say what I believe to be

true and I shall depend on your good nature to hear me through in the hope that we may ultimately part on amicable terms. It is my firm conviction that the reason high schools are not scientifically conducted is not that resources or time are lacking but that high-school principals are as a class uninterested in scientific methods of investigation. It is my belief that if principals were scientifically minded, they could persuade communities to provide the necessary energy to put high-school education on a thoroughly sound and valid basis.

In making this assertion, I do not for a moment overlook the fact that the high-school principals of this country are a highly educated and highly intelligent group. Many of them are thoroughly grounded in literature and history and some are productive scholars in mathematics and physics. They were, in many instances, transferred overnight from the field in which they were doing effective work as teachers and were transformed into principals without being changed internally in any respect. The result is that they do their thinking, when they indulge in that higher form of intellectual exercise, in the fields of literature or physics and they carry on their activities as supervisory and administrative officers with no more special skill than would be brought to the task by ordinary men.

What I am saying does not imply that these non-scientific principals are failures in conducting their schools. Quite the contrary, many of them are men of such good sense that they find what seem to be in most instances adequate solutions for the problems which arise among teachers and pupils. The solutions which are adequate are, however, seldom of the type that can be defended as well founded on scientific grounds. The high schools of this country are, for the most part, conducted with the best of intentions and with a high degree of success but by methods which are only vaguely defined and often quite tentative and fluctuating.

The remedy for the present situation does not lie in mere individual change of attitude. If some principal becomes aware of the necessity of finding scientifically defensible grounds for his action, he immediately discovers that he is an isolated individual. There is very meager information about the practices of high schools in general to which reference can be made by any individual who begins to study high-school problems.

Let me cite a few cases in point. It has recently been said of American high schools that they administer curriculums which are "ropes of sand." This rhetorical phrase is, I admit, somewhat vague. I am interested in emphasizing the fact that when one begins to refute the charge, one finds in the literature of high-school supervision very little definite material with which to answer or confirm what is said. An answer from a single school is inadequate. We ought to know much more than we now know in a definite way about the extent to which the studies pursued by individual high-school pupils really weave themselves into coherent curriculums.

Again one hears the statement that there is here and there an oversupply of teachers. What constitutes an oversupply? How does an oversupply in one city—assuming that it exists—affect the supply in other centers?

Additional examples of uncertainty in regard to the conduct of schools appear when one tries to find out what are the relations of a high-school principal to the city superintendent of schools. Or what are the relations of a principal to his teachers in such matters as the determination of the methods which shall be followed in the classrooms, in the disposition of disciplinary cases, and in so fundamental a matter as initial appointment.

There must be broad general principles to which appeal can be made in dealing with matters of the various types mentioned. These broad general principles cannot be ascertained through purely personal endeavor. The profession must address itself as a body to the study and scientific solution of the general problems of high-school administration and supervision. A thoroughgoing science of education will be possible only when coöperation is established on a sufficiently broad scale to supply a vast body of energy and full use of the facilities for experimentation furnished by all high schools.

At the present time there are a few men in scattered university centers, in state departments of education, and in a few isolated high schools who are carrying on studies on the margin of time left after performing other duties. Each man does a small piece of work periodically and timidly publishes his results. The stream of common practice flows on very little affected by these side eddies. The magnitude of the educational enterprise is enormously great, the magnitude of the scientific output is relatively insignificant.

Very often scientific research is seriously limited by the fact that the man who would be interested in carrying on the research is without the authority necessary to permit the work. Colleges of education have tried in many instances to secure opportunities for scientific work by organizing schools under their own control. Individual investigators have often found themselves so entangled in red tape and so inhibited by tradition that they have been completely blockaded in their inquiries.

The fact is that schools are organized as operating concerns. Means for the study and criticism of school operations have not been provided as a part of the routine. This appears in the fact that an ordinary principal of a middle sized high school has more distracting duties than would be assigned in industry to any kind of a supervisory officer. While industry has learned to set up well equipped laboratories and to guide its activities by the exercise of the most drastic scrutiny of its results, schools have been asked by the public to use every ounce of available energy in operation. If fifty new pupils come to a high school, the board of education may employ a new teacher but it will certainly not think of providing an assistant to the principal. Among new pupils there may be problem cases which call for careful diagnosis; some of the pupils may come ill prepared and be, for this reason, in need of special attention; they may be undecided in their interests and in need of training of a type not commonly provided in the school. Does the community supply expertly trained research people to study the fifty new pupils? Not at all. It is commonly believed that the principal who is now dealing with seven hundred pupils can take on fifty more without any recognition of the fact that his duties have been increased.

The public is not wholly to blame for its attitude. Very few principals have ever asked for facilities with which to make a careful study of teachers and pupils and the public does not know that teachers and pupils need to be studied. I must repeat in substance what I said a few moments ago. The profession must become scientifically minded or the schools will continue to be supervised on the basis of purely personal judgments.

Since I have urged the profession to take up scientific studies, it may be thought that it is my duty to outline plans which will insure

the achievement of the end which I have advocated. I have several concrete suggestions to offer.

First, I suggest that high-school principals develop as frequent opportunities as they can for conferences with one another regarding the problems which they encounter and regarding successful devices for meeting these problems. Principals in neighboring communities could very advantageously meet at least once a month and ask one another regarding such a matter as their respective methods of judging teachers. President Eliot is said to have formed his judgments regarding the teaching ability of members of the Harvard faculty by reading the examination questions which these teachers set for their classes. A canvas of the school supervisors of the country would undoubtedly bring to light a number of other useful plans. My colleague Morrison has suggested that the extent to which a teacher holds the attention of his or her class is an objective indication of the degree of the teacher's success. Principals could well afford to spend much time and energy gathering suggestions of this type.

Another question which principals might discuss in conference is the question of how far the results of tests are to be used in rating teachers. I know one great school system which holds that the results of tests are not proper bases for the rating of teachers. It is argued that the individual teacher is not responsible for the kind of pupils that are sent to his or her class through promotion, nor for the curriculum which is required to be administered. Why, then, should the classroom teacher be responsible for the results of tests? It is the obligation of the central officer to adjust matters if pupils are found to be deficient. In direct contrast with the attitude of the school system to which I have just referred is that of another system where the curriculum is assumed to be correctly standardized and where promotion is thought of as properly adjusted. In this second system, teachers are rated strictly in accordance with the showings made by their pupils on the tests arranged in the central office. I can think of nothing that would furnish a more appropriate theme for a principal's conference than the problems suggested by this contrast in attitudes on the value of tests.

In suggesting that principals meet and discuss such questions as those proposed, I am not assuming that the science of education will

be directly advanced by the early meetings. I am confident, however, that after men have discussed such questions, there will very soon develop an interest in supervisory problems which will inspire the participants in the discussion to seek objective evidence on which to base decisions and practices. There will begin to appear a scientific mind which is essential to participation in the productive study of school problems.

My second suggestion is made in the belief that a scientific attitude once established will seek and find means of promoting widespread research. I suggest that principals go about the task of converting boards of education and the public to an understanding of the fact that decisions about school policy should be reached in the light of facts. We are in a period of serious jeopardy to school interests. The expenditures for schools have come to be so vast that all kinds of sinister forces are beginning to seek places in the councils of public control of education. Conscientious educators are so busy with their daily tasks that they seldom take the time to show the public the real character and complexity of school supervision and management. The result is that the public consumes the energy of school officers in meeting trivial demands. The public seems blind to the fact that absorption in petty details interferes with the real interests of pupils. The principal of a high school who with sensitive conscience gives all his time to answering miscellaneous office callers is not really serving the public as he should. As the leader of the school, the principal ought to take time to plan for the development of the institution and he ought to devise ways of convincing the public that he is serving them when he works behind closed doors. The principal ought to prepare reports which will keep the public reading.

In direct line with this suggestion is another of like import. The public ought to pay for expert research assistance in every school. There is nothing so convincing to the public as a draft on its purse. The public will not understand and appreciate educational research until it has paid for it. At present, the public pays most of its money for teaching and appropriates only a small amount for supervision. The public pays outside of the schools a great deal for science. I have waited in the outer office of my oculist, as I dare say the rest of you have done, and I have contemplated with respect the difficulty of securing his services and the amounts which he is likely to charge me. I have noted the eagerness with which people await

their turns. He is a scientist. When he decides that I do thus and so, I do it. I have been unable on occasions when holding such meditations with myself to avoid contrasting the way in which the scientist disposes of people with the way in which people impose on educators. I repeat what I said a moment ago. The public must be taught to pay for expert research of high-school problems. I suggest that every high school with ten members on its faculty employ an expert to gather information about teachers, pupils, and curriculum. The public is getting less education for its present investment than it should. The public deserves to have its educational problems subjected to the most critical study. Let us give the public what it needs.

One of the chief reasons why a school should be supplied with time for scientific study of its problems is that records may be kept which will make possible comparisons of different schools with one another. One of the most striking indictments against the high schools of this country is that they demand of the colleges that credentials of graduates shall be asked for only on uniform blanks, but they do not, so far as I know, exhibit the slightest interest in uniformity of records in any other connection. High schools have their private methods of registering pupils, of reporting grades, of keeping account of discipline, of crediting extra-curriculum activities, and of recording the activities of teachers.

The financial officers of schools long ago discovered the advantages of comparisons which are made possible because of the existence of uniform methods of bookkeeping. Principals seem to be wholly unaware of these advantages. The highest ambition of each high-school principal seems to be to invent a new blank on which academic records are to be recorded. I know a great city in which the high schools of the single system are so divided in their practices with regard to records that scientific studies through comparison are impossible, even if there were anyone in that system interested in the science of education.

The high-school principals of this country will some day keep uniform cumulative records of their schools. Even a change in administration will not result in a destruction of records or a break in the continuity of standard information. The profession as a whole will dictate as a matter first of response to the demand for public in-

formation and second as a contribution to scientific studies that academic officers do as well as financial officers and as well as the best public utility corporations. It is an astonishing fact that it is impossible in many high schools to ascertain what courses of study were offered ten years ago and even more impossible to find out how many pupils elected certain subjects four years ago. The state of public high school records is chaotic beyond all possible defense.

My next suggestion is a negative one but it is offered with all the emphasis that I can put into words. High-school principals should not expect educational science to be brought to them in the form of simple rules of conduct which are merely to be followed. Projects are undoubtedly good when they are genuine, but there are times when school work cannot be cast in the project mould. New type examinations are very useful when one wants an objective measure of the extent to which pupils have absorbed one hundred items of information. There are occasions, however, when an examination should test the pupil's ability to formulate a train of ideas into a coherent discussion. On such occasions, the new type examinations should not be used. He who is truly master of scientific research will not think of projects and new type examinations as devices to be used without discrimination. Science is above all analytical and discriminating. He who would use science must become critical and discriminating in his own personal thinking. The science of education is a stimulating body of thought. It is not a series of rules to be slavishly followed.

I picture to myself the future principal of a high school, the man who fulfils in the most complete measure the injunction to approach his task as a scientist should. This man will be equipped with such information as others have collected and made available in educational literature. He will know the types of pupils who have been measured and described through tests and laboratory experiments. He will understand the various learning processes by which pupils respond to instruction in different departments. He will be acquainted with the discoveries that have been made in regard to methods of teaching. He will be familiar with the devices of supervision used by his fellow principals. He will be employed by a board of education who will say to him that it is not his duty to cater to the wishes of every parent and teacher. He will have time to use his scientific training and he will approach each of the large problems that con-

front him as his professional colleagues, the doctor, the lawyer, and the engineer approach their problems. He will have a reasonable number of assistants and he will be responsible for results of a superior type.

I am frank to say that I do not expect to find this type of principal where men have been catapulted late in life into supervisory office after spending their best years specializing on Virgil, or physics. I expect to see the principalships of this country occupied by men trained in the methods of scientific supervision. Then supervision will become scientific exactly as all the other modern undertakings have become scientific because they are in the hands of competent men who have learned that success depends on the collection of objective facts, on the derivation of broad principles of action from these facts and on the discriminating application of these principles to the emergencies of practical life.

FIFTH SESSION

The fifth session of the convention was called to order at 2.20 P.M. in the Ball Room of Hotel Statler by President Bacon.

Mr. H. B. Wilson, Director of the Junior Red Cross Society of America, gave a cordial invitation to the principals to the end that at least two high-school students from each state may attend the national meeting of the Junior Red Cross Society in October, in Washington, D. C.

The ballots for the election of members of the National Council of the National Honor Society were distributed.

BALLOT

For Members of the National Council of the National Honor Society

(Vote for three)

- () CHARLES E. KEYES, California
- () P. C. BUNN, Ohio
- () N. V. KEPNER, Colorado
- () MERLE PRUNTY, Oklahoma
- () L. W. SMITH, Illinois
- () R. R. COOK, Iowa

(Vote for one)

(To fill vacancy)

- () WALTER DOWNEY, Massachusetts
- () E. H. KEMPER McCOMB, Indiana

Those listed below were elected:

(For three years.)

CHARLES E. KEYES
MERLE PRUNTY
L. W. SMITH

(For two years to fill vacancy.)

WALTER DOWNEY

Principal Milo H. Stuart of Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana, presented the reports of the Committee on Class Size:

Mr. President:

The committee of the Association on class size was authorized during the annual meeting of 1925. It was organized in Chicago May 8th of that year and has been in continuous operation to date. The personnel from the first consisted of

F. S. BREED, Assoc. Professor of Education, University of Chicago.

C. P. BRIGGS, Principal of Senior High School, Lakewood, Ohio.

C. A. FISHER, Principal of Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

EARL HUDELSON, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota.

P. R. STEVENSON, Research Associate, Ohio State University.

M. H. STUART, Chairman, Principal of Arsenal Technical School, Indianapolis.

H. V. CHURCH, Secretary of the Association, acted as committee secretary.

It will be noted from the composition of the committee that almost every phase of the question of class size as relates to secondary education is represented. Without specific subdivision, the committee has divided itself into three rather natural lines of work. Dr. Stevenson of Ohio and Dr. Breed of Chicago have made specific contributions in directing experimentation relative to class size. The work that Dr. Stevenson had done prior to the organization of the committee and the contribution which he and Dr. Breed made jointly has been of great value to those inclined to test experimentally the results of various class sizes. These people have also done considerable in supervising experimentation in this field. It fell to the lot of Dr. Hudelson to develop the subject of technique as relates to class size. In this work he enlisted the efforts not only of his colleagues but of some eight hundred high-school teachers interested in finding the most advantageous techniques for both large and small classes. Dr. Hudelson took the position that a comparison of class size could not be made to any advantage unless we first develop the optimum

techniques best suited to each. This he has attempted to do through great effort and with quite appreciable results. The chairman with Principal Briggs and Principal Fisher have kept in mind all the while the administrative aspects of class size and have attempted to show that there are advantages growing out of the formation of large classes in that small classes may at the same time be advantageously maintained without increasing the per capita cost.

At the Washington meeting in February 1926, the report as given by the chairman was devoted to an administrative consideration of the subject. At the St. Louis meeting in February 1927, Dr. Hudelson represented the committee in the presentation of his report on techniques as related to class size. During the summer just passed Dr. Hudelson and Dr. Breed have produced a combined report for the committee including techniques for handling large classes and directions for further experimentation with large classes. Anyone interested in knowing more about this study should communicate with them.

The committee feels that the subject has now been presented in its various phases whereby the Association is at liberty to continue experimentation in the many directions suggested without the necessity of further help from the committee. We do not imply that the work in any sense has been finished, but that the initial job has been attempted with more or less success and that we are now in a position to throw the task open to the Association at large or re-commission another committee to carry the work forward. This position is here taken on behalf of the committee growing out of the fact that its membership is now reduced to one half. Principal C. A. Fisher of Kalamazoo has undertaken other work and as a result withdrew from the committee. The Association well remembers that Dr. P. R. Stevenson died more than a year ago and that a second loss was recently sustained through the death of Principal C. P. Briggs of Lakewood, Ohio. For these reasons alone it is apparent that the Association should take action with respect to future committee work along the lines of optimum class size.

Appreciating the honor, courtesies and privilege of serving this Association in this capacity during the last three years, we respectfully submit this summary of our activities and ask that the committee be discharged.

Moved that the final report be adopted and the committee be discharged. Carried.

Principal F. J. DuFrain of Pontiac, Michigan, in the absence of the chairman, Principal R. R. Cook of Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa, read the report of the Committee on Standard Blanks.

REPORT OF COMMISSION ON STANDARD BLANKS

R. R. COOK,

PRINCIPAL OF ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL, DES MOINES, IOWA

Your commission desires to submit the following report of its work on the development of a standard record form for secondary schools:

A year ago the commission reported the details of an analysis of about two hundred and fifty permanent record forms gathered from representative secondary schools in different parts of the country.

After the meeting a year ago we submitted to a number of the members of this association the list of items found in the analysis of these blanks and asked them to evaluate the various items. By a combination of the weightings thus secured we were able to determine the relative values of the items according to the judgments of a good-sized group of judges. Evaluations were received from sixty judges. Included in the list were thirty-four principals of senior and four-year high schools, nine principals of junior high schools, four principals of junior-senior high schools and thirteen specialists in secondary education who are teaching in institutions of higher learning.

We are further indebted to Mr. B. Lamar Johnson, a graduate student at the University of Minnesota, working under the direction of Dr. L. V. Koos, a member of this commission, for the labor involved in sending out the lists of items and preparing the tables of values.

The five uses of permanent record cards were ranked by the sixty judges as follows:

1. To assist in guidance of pupils (including classification and placement).
2. To improve classroom teaching methods by giving the teacher access to information regarding the individual differences of pupils.

3. To assist in research.
4. To meet requirements of and provide basis for reports to state, county, and local authorities.
5. To motivate pupil's work.

The ranks of the 237 items appearing in permanent record forms, based on the average value assigned to them by the sixty judges were as follows:

ITEM	I ¹	II ²	III ³	IV ⁴	V ⁵	VI ⁶	VII ⁷
Pupil's name	1	1	1	1	1	1	1439
Pupil's date of birth	3	2	3	6	2	2	1301
Intelligence quotient	35	8	7	3	5	3	1161
Score in standard tests	54	10	8	4	8	4	1103
Pupil's age at entrance	25	4	12	25	4	5	1099
Score in intelligence tests	40	7	18	5	7	6	1097
School entered from	10	3	83	67	3	7	1087
Absence summaries	13	5	45	17	6	8	1067
Mental age	63	14	9	9	11	9	1035
Sex	40	13	15	8	12	10	1030
Marks in each subject by semester	6	19	10	2	18	11	1027
Ratings on personal traits	20	29	6	7	14	12	1026
Pupil's nationality	56	16	5	13	15	13	1003
Tardiness summaries	21	6	101	37	10	14	995
Color or race	80	21	2	27	16	15	983
Date of school entrance	4	9	30	77	9	16	977
Class score in standard tests	120	25	13	14	19	17	976
Honors received	68	28	20	23	20	18	968
Credits upon entrance	51	12	31	57	13	19	961
Positions of responsibility held	171	43	10	12	29	20	944
Space for extra-curriculum activities	32	48	4	11	31	21	942
Reason for leaving school	18	26	50	18	27	22	936
Amount of credit—total	22	22	19	48	22	23	929
Name of standard tests	60	27	26	35	23	23	929
Chronological age	72	23	17	72	27	25	927
Membership in organization	108	11	70	82	17	26	925
Pupil's address	9	17	23	50	21	27	920
Name of intelligence tests	42	31	25	34	26	28	917
Days present summaries	63	15	109	40	25	28	917
Date left school	7	31	51	33	30	30	912

- ¹ Rank on basis of frequency of appearance on 249 permanent record forms.
- ² Rank on basis of ratings by thirty-four principals of senior and four-year high schools.
- ³ Rank on basis of ratings by nine principals of junior high schools.
- ⁴ Rank on basis of ratings by thirteen specialists in secondary education who are teaching in institutions of higher learning.
- ⁵ Rank on basis of ratings by combined group of forty-seven principals.
- ⁶ Rank on basis of ratings by combined group of sixty judges—forty-seven principals and thirteen specialists in secondary education.
- ⁷ Value assigned to item by group of sixty judges.

ITEM	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Subject age	226	33	22	54	24	31	904
Meaning of marks	29	37	14	31	34	32	888
Pupil's place of birth	27	24	24	66	32	33	879
Date re-entered	48	31	78	18	33	34	877
Vocational Preference	51	57	33	10	41	35	872
Upper, lower, or middle one-third of each class in which pupil took work .	80	48	27	20	39	36	869
Intention to graduate from high school	108	67	16	16	43	37	854
Suspended	152	35	79	62	36	38	846
Parents' name	2	19	104	75	35	39	844
Classification upon entrance	80	37	35	58	38	40	842
Rank in graduating class	45	39	84	36	41	41	839
Parents' address	18	19	128	81	37	42	832
Are parents living?	171	36	69	48	43	43	825
Reasons for irregular attendance	198	41	56	27	45	44	818
Intention to enter college	98	76	32	24	56	45	809
Reinstated (after suspension)	198	45	101	61	46	46	806
Reason for not intending to graduate .	108	71	62	21	61	47	803
Standing at last school	51	63	41	15	64	47	803
Number of weeks each subject taken . .	31	39	55	92	40	49	794
Athletic record	171	72	44	45	53	50	792
Home surroundings	90	52	62	42	55	51	791
Date of intelligence tests	45	58	39	39	58	52	790
Date of transfer to other school	108	53	70	64	54	52	790
Education quotient	198	66	117	37	63	54	782
Father's occupation	12	88	38	30	66	54	782
Date of graduation	5	34	149	90	48	58	779
Date of standard tests	60	55	65	53	57	57	776
Times per week of each subject	28	51	43	94	47	58	775
Language of the home	98	62	52	46	65	59	770
Daily attendance record	152	42	94	88	49	60	769
Course taken	15	55	74	60	60	60	769
Parents' attitudes	171	60	88	70	59	62	763
Honor points in extra-curriculum ac- tivities	135	91	37	28	73	63	759
Is mother employed outside of the home?	226	48	48	103	50	64	755
Course graduated in	105	44	115	93	52	65	755
Grade last attended	198	46	107	103	51	66	749
Home duties of pupil	226	65	64	63	67	67	747
Length of recitation	51	69	49	89	61	68	741
Parents' nationality	56	60	66	79	70	69	727
Space for tests in general	198	100	57	26	86	70	722
General health	34	114	35	22	91	71	721
After-school and Saturday employment	198	98	58	51	81	72	713
Amount of credit in each subject by years	24	74	94	79	79	73	707
Extra-curriculum credits	135	122	28	44	85	74	704
Marks in each subject by years	14	75	54	98	76	75	694

ITEM	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Date each subject completed.	90	101	47	99	78	76	693
Date each subject taken	26	70	164	106	77	77	690
Name of city.	16	59	82	143	69	78	689
Record of service in elected offices . . .	171	89	113	87	81	79	688
Name of school.	7	50	133	119	68	80	666
Vision.	80	97	73	71	87	81	683
College preparing for	68	106	58	40	99	82	681
Pupil's adviser	120	88	53	76	89	84	679
Length of school year	171	78	42	145	71	84	679
Amount of credit by subjects	11	111	33	31	104	84	679
Date of promotion	198	86	61	117	79	84	679
Vacation and other employment	198	107	72	59	94	87	678
Hearing	80	103	79	74	92	88	674
Course entered	45	72	125	105	81	88	674
Record first year in college	198	93	60	49	100	90	667
Parents' telephone	80	55	189	157	74	91	666
Pupil's telephone	45	87	45	117	84	92	665
Pupil's group number	171	77	40	186	72	93	657
Total days taught	80	64	175	186	75	94	649
Credit in each subject by semesters . .	23	109	76	44	111	95	646
Mark in removal of condition	193	103	105	72	107	96	641
Date of transfer to senior high school .	152	107	106	86	101	97	640
Has pupil a step-mother?	226	85	86	134	90	98	634
Address of guardian	135	79	154	120	93	99	630
To what school (<i>under date of transfer</i>)	68	98	150	107	103	100	626
Credentials for entrance	108	90	108	99	106	101	623
Name of guardian	98	103	119	112	102	102	621
Space for general remarks	18	117	100	67	112	103	619
Date of school entrance each year . .	98	92	158	131	96	104	616
Elementary school graduated from . .	60	82	136	145	96	105	611
Subjects liked best	198	119	129	55	115	106	609
Number in graduating class	72	83	97	195	87	107	602
Intention to get B.A. or B.B. degree .	98	123	121	65	121	108	598
Date of leaving last school.	108	95	136	120	109	109	595
Class of 19—	98	81	178	102	98	110	595
Father's business address	51	80	163	184	95	111	592
Conference with pupil.	226	118	113	102	108	112	584
Has pupil a step-father?	226	113	86	134	110	113	581
Other high schools attended—when? .	198	98	227	96	115	114	577
Subjects liked least	198	138	132	56	132	115	572
Year of each activity	171	128	174	119	118	116	564
Parents' birthplace	58	116	92	134	114	117	562
Pupil's home room teacher	152	147	29	111	125	118	558
Father's business telephone	152	84	218	204	104	118	558
Years parents have been in the United States	226	125	130	84	130	120	557

ITEM	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Honor points for subjects	226	130	74	29	153	121	556
List of extra-curriculum activities printed on record form	90	159	91	115	123	121	556
College entered	36	122	123	91	128	123	555
General physical condition	98	138	110	69	139	124	554
Subjects very poor in	198	134	77	122	122	125	553
Subjects very good in	198	131	85	121	123	125	553
Other high schools attended	90	94	227	164	113	127	551
Pupil's home room	108	148	21	147	119.	128	548
Parents' choice of calling	226	164	99	85	136	129	546
Teeth	120	135	119	137	126	130	544
Average mark for four years	63	135	158	83	140	131	542
Other high schools attended—how long?	198	112	227	96	135	132	536
Resident or tuition pupil	120	126	92	134	127	133	532
Physical education	171	105	161	182	120	134	529
Grade in final examination	33	124	98	123	131	135	528
Heart	171	155	122	109	138	136	526
Letters received	226	149	89	115	137	137	522
Lungs	171	163	144	101	147	138	511
Interview with parents	226	144	133	128	140	139	509
Credits sent to	80	114	169	179	129	140	505
Remarks by examiner (Physical)	135	145	154	131	143	141	503
Date of elementary school graduation	135	110	146	189	117	141	503
Adenoids	135	158	96	150	144	143	492
Number of pupils in each class	120	129	81	193	134	144	485
Credits not counted towards graduation	98	141	138	114	155	145	484
Outside readings in English	90	136	88	194	132	145	484
Anemia	135	167	152	138	148	147	482
Amount over or under weight	135	186	67	78	168	148	480
Average of periodic class marks	72	146	143	95	162	149	477
College entrance credits by years	198	140	157	170	146	150	476
Date of record	86	121	200	190	144	151	471
Remarks concerning health	171	166	141	152	154	152	467
Pupil's religion	108	153	117	165	150	153	466
Brothers and sisters—younger	226	143	166	142	159	154	460
Brothers and sisters—older	226	142	166	155	157	155	456
Nutrition	171	172	169	129	165	156	447
Other schools attended	66	156	145	199	150	157	442
Tonsils	120	180	139	151	164	158	441
Tuberculosis	198	161	181	173	161	159	441
Date when weighed and measured	135	149	208	188	156	160	439
Summary of graduation requirements	120	137	147	215	149	161	429
Birth certificate	135	170	90	196	159	162	425
Course in college	171	185	103	124	173	163	424
Occupation of brothers and sisters	226	159	173	173	166	164	423
Evidence of age	120	120	169	169	142	165	422
Thyroid	152	187	116	156	169	166	422
Name of principal	39	132	204	201	159	166	422
Name of teacher for each subject	30	151	195	220	152	168	421
Grade at physical examination	108	184	126	176	170	169	411
Date of entering college	198	178	130	140	176	169	411
Work entered	86	176	171	147	179	171	407

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ITEM	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Age at physical examination	120	192	124	158	175	172	404
Marks in each subject by six-week periods	37	156	142	206	163	172	404
Number of brothers and sisters	171	153	186	202	166	174	399
Years parents have been naturalized	226	175	161	177	172	175	398
Nasal obstruction	152	189	148	154	181	176	397
Employer's reason for leaving work	226	215	216	108	217	177	388
Date of physical examination	108	196	137	162	186	178	382
Spine	198	176	212	163	184	178	382
Height	72	201	205	126	195	180	376
Summary of credits by subject groups	198	193	113	175	187	181	374
Course number of each subject	152	194	207	167	189	182	373
Mouth breathing	152	202	166	178	187	183	372
Other physical defects	198	161	199	221	190	184	368
Vaccination	56	205	182	153	171	184	366
Ward in which pupil lives	152	169	176	209	177	186	365
Remarks for each subject	63	169	188	170	198	187	363
Marks in each subject by quarters	42	176	150	197	184	188	360
Text used	120	174	172	218	174	189	359
Advancement in work entered	226	219	153	147	202	191	350
Units allowed by teacher for each subject	135	168	235	214	183	191	350
Signature of persons making record	80	152	229	227	177	191	350
Normal weight for child of his age	135	202	205	168	197	193	349
College recommended to and entered	198	199	214	131	207	194	347
Work entered—positions	226	218	178	110	214	194	347
Degrees—date	198	206	164	160	204	196	340
Employee's reason for leaving work	226	213	216	113	218	197	338
Other schools attended—grades attended in	171	189	233	161	206	198	336
Palate	152	214	163	184	200	199	335
Age at entering college	171	200	127	191	199	200	333
Vaccination results	135	173	223	213	191	201	332
Weight	72	191	139	211	192	202	331
Pages covered in text	198	171	173	233	180	202	331
Room number of each class	152	164	192	235	182	204	327
College recommended to	171	210	210	172	210	205	321
Other schools attended—date of admittance to	171	163	233	204	196	206	319
Name of employers	120	215	224	139	223	207	315
Vaccination date	80	181	219	225	194	208	313
Other diseases or injuries	135	197	180	212	200	209	309
Cervical glands	152	221	195	161	213	211	308
Work entered—salary	226	230	192	125	228	211	308
Classification of each subject under one of main subject groups	98	225	177	158	222	211	306
Scarlet fever	198	197	197	210	202	213	307
Hour of each class	152	182	190	234	193	214	302
Phimosis	152	222	210	164	219	215	301
Orthopedia	135	232	161	180	221	216	298

ITEM	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
Small pox	198	204	198	203	209	217	297
Work entered—date left	226	223	222	145	228	218	293
List of main subject groups	108	226	110	198	220	219	287
Name of superintendent	171	195	192	222	208	220	285
Size (subjective)	171	217	215	228	205	221	281
Measles	198	207	209	206	211	222	279
Diphtheria	198	207	210	206	212	222	279
Credits sent—date sent	135	220	201	200	223	224	277
Mumps	198	209	212	224	214	225	273
Whooping cough	198	211	212	219	216	226	271
Marks in each subject by months	38	229	231	165	230	227	270
Number of pupil's card in filing system	171	231	156	207	226	228	267
Signature of teacher recording grades	90	224	194	226	225	229	259
Batismal certificate	135	212	232	231	227	230	224
Work entered—date	198	233	221	203	232	231	225
Passport	135	227	230	230	231	232	196
Space for subsequent history	80	237	184	168	233	233	194
Date of death	226	234	220	222	234	234	182
Evidence of age—other documentary proof	135	228	237	232	234	235	168
Date of marriage	226	236	224	229	236	236	158
Vaccinated by	152	235	236	237	237	237	132

It will be noted that these items are not grouped according to the types of uses to be made of them.

The sixty judges ranked the importance of certain mechanical features of permanent record forms as follows:

1. Permanent record card should provide space for records beyond time ordinarily required to complete high school course.
2. One year's space should be provided.
3. Junior and senior high school permanent records should be included on one form.
4. List of all required subjects should be printed.
5. List of all subjects taught should be printed on the permanent record.
6. Blank spaces should be left for writing in names of all subjects.

Upon receiving Mr. Johnson's report on the rankings of the items by the coöperating judges, the commission met and determined the general form of the blank to be submitted, including the first forty items most heavily weighted by the judges and certain scattered ones below that point.

It was decided to submit to the judges who had coöperated in this project, two tentative forms, one 5"x8" and the other 8½"x11" inasmuch as these two sizes are standard and are most frequently suited to the filing systems now in use in high school offices.

Forms I and II on the following pages show the fronts and backs of the two tentative forms:

FORM I

(Front)

PUPIL'S PERMANENT RECORD																									
Last name				First name				Sex		Race		Mo. Day Year		Date of birth		Place of birth		Yes No							
Name of Parent or Guardian								Latest address												Tuition					
School entered from				Place				Date of entrance				Age				Curriculum chosen									
Sem. ending		Subj.		Sem. ending		Subj.		Sem. ending		Subj.		Sem. ending		Subj.		Sem. ending		Subj.		Sem. ending		Subj.			
no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.		no. hrs.			
1		2		1		2		1		2		1		2		1		2		1		2			
3		4		3		4		3		4		3		4		3		4		3		4			
5		6		5		6		5		6		5		6		5		6		5		6			
7		8		7		8		7		8		7		8		7		8		7		8			
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13		14		13		14		13		14		13		14		13		14		13		14			
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19		20		19		20		19		20		19		20		19		20		19		20			
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153		154		153		154		153		154		153		154		153		154		153		154			
155		156		155		156		155		156		155		156		155		156		155		156			
157		158		157		158		157		158		157		158		157		158		157		158			
159		160		159		160		159		160		159		160		159		160		159		160			
161		162		161		162		161		162		161		162		161		162		161		162			
163		164		163		164		163																	

(FORM II)
(Front)

PUPIL'S PERMANENT RECORD											
Name: Last _____ First _____		Sex _____ Race _____		Birth: Place _____		Date: Mo. _____ Day _____ Year _____					
Parent or Guardian _____ Latest address (a) _____ (b) _____ (c) _____				Enrolled from _____ Date _____ Age _____ Curriculum chosen _____ Tuition: Yes... No... Credits from other schools (a) _____ (b) _____ (c) _____ Adviser _____							
Sem. ending											
No. of weeks											
Length of period											
Group	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)	Judy Miller (C)
English											
Social Science											
Mathematics											
Foreign Language											
Industrial Arts											
Home Economics											
Commercial											
Music											
Art											
Physical Educ.											
Semester Total											
TOTAL											

Dropped: Date _____ Reason _____ Re-entered: Date _____ Transferred to: _____ Date _____ Graduated: Date _____ Rank in class _____ No. in class _____ Credits sent to: _____ Date _____	Explanation of symbols and marks Name of School and City _____
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(Back)

[illegible]

These forms were printed from zinc etchings, made from original drawings, so do not have the lettering in quite the same sizes and positions that they will have on regular printed forms. If these forms were set up and printed from type it would be possible to economize on the amount of space needed for the titles and thus leave more room for writing. These tentative forms were made merely to obtain critical comments on the general form and position of the various items.

At the time this report was written, thirty replies with comments and criticisms had been received from the men to whom the tentative forms were submitted. There has been no time in which to revise the blanks since receiving these criticisms so the most significant of them are here listed with comments by the chairman of the committee:

1. I should call attention first to the size of the blanks. They are larger than the final forms for the reason that they were printed from the engravings which were the exact size of the forms planned. This matter would be corrected if the forms were set up in type as they should be in case the Association goes into the record-card business.

2. There are a number of requests for "smaller type." It will of course be possible to use smaller type in setting up the forms. Hand lettering, from which the zinc etchings were made, must be larger in order to reproduce well. Smaller type will give more space for entries.

3. We were guilty of an oversight in omitting the "Science" or "Natural Science" group from the large form.

4. More spaces for subjects will be provided on the small form—probably not less than seven. The increase will be possible from space saved by smaller type at top and bottom.

5. There should be provision for a middle name.

6. "Group" or "Group number" should be placed somewhere on the large card. It is already on the small one.

7. Perhaps "Periods per week" would be better than "Days per week."

8. We need the length of period inserted at some point on the smaller form. It is now on the larger one.

9. There should be at least one more "Latest address" on the small card.

Certain comments relate to organization of the forms. Of those I think the following most pertinent:

1. On small card "General health" and "Physical defects" should be placed at the top of the division in which it appears.

2. "Industrial Arts" and "Home Economics" can be provided for under the single heading, "Practical Arts," on the large card, thus saving space for additional subjects and subject groups.

Other suggestions that seem to be worth considering are, the heavy vertical lines separating each pair of semesters on the large card and the provision on the large form of a wide margin suitable for punching, should the school use a book or binder instead of a drawer file. This would need to be an option in ordering. One principal objects to too much writing in making entries. It would, of course, be out of the question for us to attempt to print in the specific courses or extra-curriculum activities provided in particular schools. Many of the comments will be displaced by the directions for use which should accompany the form. For example, one principal would like to insert "conduct." The users can be told in a pamphlet that such additional qualities may be cared for in blank spaces under "personal traits." Another commented that the space for writing in the name of each subject was too short. It was the intention of the committee that symbols rather than full names of subjects be used. For example: the various semester of English could be designated as E1, E2, etc.

Space was provided on both forms for the records of ten semesters as a majority of the high schools of the country are four-year schools and a majority of the judges coöperating in this project recommended space for one year more than the regular course.

Many minor criticisms with reference to the amount of space and location of items on the two blanks will be considered when these blanks are given their final revision. Lack of space on a 5" x 8" or even on an 8½" x 11" made it impossible to include all items desired by critics of the blank, so the committee had to leave out some bulky items even though weighted by the judges more heavily than others, that were included but required less space.

When this project was undertaken it was understood by the committee that its chief purpose was that of bringing about a standardization of the kinds of records kept in high-school offices so that transcripts from one high school to another or from high schools to

colleges would contain data comparable to that kept by the school receiving the record. Therefore, your committee has attempted to make this a coöperative project participated in by a large group of principals and a group of university specialists in secondary education. In reaching this objective it is not necessary that all schools use exactly the same forms. It might be quite desirable in some cases that schools print their own forms with adaptations to suit some local needs. However, it does seem very desirable that all shall include in their records those items which, it has been found, are desired by a large number of schools.

If, the forms that we are developing, when finally completed, seem to fit the needs and meet the approval of the members of this Association, the Association might well arrange to print them in large quantities and sell them to the member schools at cost.

Within the next few weeks we hope to complete our task of revising the tentative forms herewith submitted, in accordance with many of the excellent criticisms received, and have them put in printed form for final inspection. In the meantime it might be well for this Association to decide whether it desires to go into the business of printing these forms as it has been doing with the transcript blanks.

Respectfully submitted,

L. V. KOOS

F. J. DUFRAIN

R. R. COOK (Chairman)

Moved that the Department print the completed blanks in large quantities for sale to members. Carried.

The President then introduced Mr. Edward Rynearson who advertised Bulletin 19 of the Department and reviewed the history of vocational guidance in America.

Mr. Rynearson then introduced Professor L. V. Koos, Professor of Secondary Education of the University of Minnesota, who read a paper entitled, *The Status of Counseling and Guidance in Secondary Schools*.

GUIDANCE PRACTICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

LEONARD V. KOOS,

PROFESSOR OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF
MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

The endeavor in this presentation will be to make a brief and partial description only of a rather extensive study of guidance practice in secondary schools being made at the University of Minnesota, and, because the study is nearing completion, to draw at least in a limited way on the findings. This study is being made by the writer in collaboration with Mr. Grayson N. Kefauver, an instructor in the College of Education, who, during his previous experience in practical school work, gave a good deal of attention to problems in the field of guidance. It has been generous of your Committee on Guidance to suggest that some report be made concerning this study on the program for this afternoon, especially in view of the many valuable papers already provided for.

The study to which I refer is a sort of *extensive survey of guidance practice* in which doubtless many in this audience have co-operated. It seemed to the writer, at the time that it was undertaken something more than a year ago, that one of the most helpful things that could be done at this time in this important field of activity would be to take stock of these activities now going forward in our schools. To this end we first prepared an extended checking list of these activities, the items appearing in it being drawn from many sources, such as a number of articles in periodicals, chapters in books, and memories of many contacts with schools in which vigorous efforts have been made to develop guidance programs. An impression of the completeness of this list of items may be gained from the statement that only a small number of additional practices were reported in the spaces provided, although entries of this sort were called for at several points throughout the blank. Moreover, the large amount of work on the study since the data were returned has suggested few possible additional practices.

We have had a good deal of assurance on the score of the timeliness of the study. This was provided first in the promptness and large proportion of returns. Despite the laborious task involved of filling in a large four-page blank crowded with six-point type and pro-

viding for more than five hundred spaces for entries of different kinds, the proportionate response has been practically a half of the blanks sent out. This is somewhat out of the ordinary in view of the current resentment at the numbers of questionnaires of various sorts that have been flooding the offices of school administrators. The timeliness is attested also by an unusual proportion of commendatory notes sent with the returns or written on the margins of the checking forms; by an exceptional number of requests for additional copies of the form on account of its suggestiveness for practice, compliance with which quickly exhausted the excess of unused forms provided for just such a purpose; and by the amount of subsequent correspondence inquiring as to the nearness to completion of the study. We have been very much gratified at these evidences of the timeliness of the study, as they at the same time point to its usefulness. There is nothing that brings more pleasure to some of us who undertake research in education than to feel that what we are trying to do promises or turns out to be of practical use in schools.

It is out of the question to attempt to report in the brief time allotted for the presentation, much in the way of detail from the study. In view of the large amount of numerical and tabular materials descriptive of practice which have grown out of the study, the listeners here should be thankful on this account. For the most part these details, tables, and figures are of the sort that one should sit down to and ponder over when ample time is available, rather than listen to in a program of this type. What will be attempted is citation of illustrative evidence of a more general nature and of significance emanating from the detailed data.

A word should be said first concerning the schools represented in the study. Although the number of checking lists finally returned was somewhat larger, a total of almost 340 different institutions are represented in our analyses. They are widely distributed over the entire country and to practically all our forty-eight states. They are of four main types, four-year high schools, three-year senior high schools, six-year high schools, and junior high schools. The order of frequency from largest to smallest numbers is that in which they have just been named and the numbers of each type are large enough to afford a basis of comparison as to the provisions for guidance which are made. The returns are also well representative of

schools of different enrollments, from small schools with less than a hundred pupils to large schools with two to four thousand pupils.

The checking list itself was organized into five divisions, the items distributing themselves to four divisions logical for the consideration of guidance problems. (1) The first of these four divisions was a long one comprehending the *practices aiming at informing the pupil concerning educational and vocational opportunities*. Illustrative of these are: publishing a program of studies with its arrangement of curricula, subjects, etc.; issuing a handbook much of whose content relates to guidance; providing a program of studies intentionally flexible; providing elective subjects; providing curricula leading to specific occupations; offering composite courses; offering exploratory courses; offering a course in vocational information ("vocational civics," "occupations," the "life-career course," etc.); setting forth the vocational opportunities in the community; providing information concerning requirements for entrance to colleges and other higher institutions; utilizing extra-curriculum activities generally for their guidance value; and arranging for employment during summer vacations. (2) The second division included *those practices aiming at securing information concerning pupils*. Illustrative of these are: having pupils indicate their educational plans; having pupils indicate occupational plans; recording information concerning participation in extra-curriculum activities; keeping a record of each pupils' part time and vacation employment; giving group and individual intelligence tests; giving prognostic and aptitude tests; securing ratings on personal qualities, and securing evidence on home conditions. (3) The third division included *activities with the individual pupil*. These follow naturally after we have informed the pupil and gathered information concerning him—that is, after the way has been prepared for them. Here are included such items as provisions for interviews, records of interviews, intensive systematic study of problem cases, placement and follow up of individual pupils, issue of working permits, and the like. (4) The fourth and final division was concerned with *the distribution and assignment of the activities named*, that is the *organization of guidance service in the school or school system*. It inquired after the provision of the dean of girls, dean of boys, home room teachers, counsellors, committees on guidance, and visiting teachers, and after the extent of discharge of guidance responsibilities by these functionaries and by the principal himself.

Adequate recognition of these four division of activities or relationships in a school, that is those aiming to inform pupils concerning educational and vocational opportunities, those aiming to secure the requisite information concerning pupils, those bringing the informed pupil and the person having the information concerning him together, and finally those relating to the most effective assignment and organization of these activities, must after all constitute the future guidance programs in our best secondary schools.

Having illustrated the types of items on the checking list we may venture a brief statement concerning the extent to which principals of the schools represented report providing them. For this purpose we may omit the fourth group having to do with organization and distribution of responsibilities and consider only the items in the first three groups. Of these there was a possible total of 71 activities or provisions. It is interesting to note the wide range in the number of activities carried on as few as six in one school and as many as fifty-three in the school reporting the largest number. The median was approximately 24, or about a third of the total number. What the statistician refers to as the mode—the most common number—was in this case twenty to twenty-four. The remainder were, of course, spread between the two extremes cited with a notable tendency to pile up near these central measures. There is doubtless some selection represented in the schools making returns, those carrying on more in the way of guidance probably being more ready to respond. To the extent that this is true, the situation just described flatters to some extent our secondary schools as a whole. At the same time it is unequivocal evidence that a significant proportion of schools have taken long steps toward a desirable guidance program.

All will grant, I presume, that everything is not being accomplished that can and should be accomplished. This is apparent at a number of points in the study. One of these is in an investigation of the relationship between what we may call the pupil-teacher ratio and the number of guidance activities being carried on. The pupil-teacher ratio is merely the number resulting from the division of the enrollment of the school by the number on the staff ("teaching and administrative, but not clerical," is the manner in which this number was reported). These ratios ranged as widely in the group of schools represented as from 8 to 34. The presumption would be that the smaller this ratio the larger might be the number of guidance ac-

tivities. The data of the report do not at all bear out this expectation. For example, the numbers of activities for schools at the two extremes of pupil ratio just reported are both 27.5, that is, they are identical. The median numbers for each ratio between these extremes disclose no such presumed relationship, being seemingly casually either somewhat below or above 27.5. The schools with smaller ratios do not appear to be utilizing the advantage over schools with the larger ratios on enlarged guidance programs. Doubtless, some are doing so, but it has no apparent effect on the relationship here measured, or is offset by efforts of a similar sort among certain of the schools with the larger ratios.

Because it was thought that the type of organization of guidance service or of the distribution of responsibilities for guidance might affect the number of activities going forward in a school, some special consideration was given to this relationship. One might quite naturally suppose that some type or types of organization would stand out above others in stimulating the carrying on of more activities than others. The importance of organization is implied, for instance, in the fact that the first main division after the introductory chapter in the report recently issued by this Association for your Committee on Guidance is devoted to the plan of organization for guidance within the secondary school.* As far as we have been able to ascertain in the canvass of our materials to date, there seems to be no significant relationship here in the present state of guidance practice. Further development in this relatively new field of secondary-school activity may develop such a relationship, but thus far little is disclosed.

Reference to the types of organization brings to mind the only other type of defect in practice to which this brief report can direct attention. Before it can be pointed out, it is desirable to indicate the percentages of schools having certain types of officers to whom responsibilities for guidance are assigned. Of all schools represented in this study about half have an officer corresponding to the dean of girls; about a third an officer corresponding to the dean of boys; about two-thirds provide for home room teachers; about a fifth use *large* proportions of teachers as advisers without the home room relationship; about a seventh have a much *smaller* proportion of teachers designated as counsellors; even smaller proportions have guid-

*Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, January, 1918. Bulletin No. 19, Guidance in Secondary Schools. Chap. II.

ance committees of the faculty and visiting teachers; in almost half the school the principal personally advises pupils along a variety of lines. All these proportions total about 250 per cent of all schools, which means that schools often resort to two or more types of assignment of responsibilities for guidance.

We may now turn to the kinds of guidance service rendered by these different types of functionaries. In order to make the situation clear I must beg you to attend while I read a number of kinds of guidance service and the percentages of each of group of functionaries who render each kind of service. You are asked to note in particular the point at which for each group the percentages drop off markedly. The deans of girls render the different types of guidance service in the following proportions of cases: concerning matters of discipline, 56.6 per cent; social conduct, 85.0; extra-curriculum activities, 73.4; quality of work, 41.6; curriculum guidance, 31.8; vocational guidance, 23.1; placement, 25.4; follow up, 15.6. Corresponding percentages for deans of boys are; discipline, 77.1; social conduct, 67.2; extra-curriculum activities, 66.7; quality of work, 47.6; curriculum guidance, 44.8; vocational guidance, 31.4; placement 28.6; follow up, 23.6. For home room advisers the percentages are: discipline, 69.0; social conduct, 65.5; extra-curriculum activities, 74.8; quality of work, 61.9; curriculum guidance, 61.5; vocational guidance, 29.2. No inquiry was made concerning the responsibilities of home room teachers for placement and follow up, a tenable assumption being that the proportion would be negligible. For classroom teachers acting as advisers where a large proportion of such teachers are assigned such responsibilities, the percentages are: discipline, 69.7; social conduct, 66.7; quality of work, 77.3; curriculum guidance, 47.0; vocational guidance, 15.2; placement, 10.6; follow up, 10.6. Finally, for the counsellors where they make up only a small proportion of the staff, corresponding percentages are: discipline, 41.7; social conduct, 43.8; extra-curriculum activities, 47.9; quality of work, 52.1; curriculum guidance, 60.4; vocational guidance, 43.8; placement, 29.2; and follow-up, 29.2.

A significant inference from all these series of percentages is that they show a striking decrease at the point where vocational guidance is mentioned. For the most part they show some decrease also for the category just preceding this one, that is curriculum guidance, although the percentages for it are typically higher than for

vocational guidance and very much higher than for placement and follow up. It will help to an appreciation of the significance of the point of decrease to think of guidance under such categories as discipline, social conduct, and quality of work as *adjustment*, in the sense of effecting a better adjustment of the pupil to the school situation, and guidance under such categories as curriculum guidance, vocational guidance, placement and follow up as *distribution*, in the sense of distributing the pupils as advantageously as possible to the curriculum and vocational opportunities at hand. With this explanation before us we may now direct attention to the defect of guidance programs referred to above as the last that would be brought up for consideration in this paper: as far as may be judged from the evidence of this study, the *distribution* phase of the guidance program is being less well cared for than the adjustment phase, although, doubtless, much improvement could be effected in both in most of our secondary schools.

In closing I should like to emphasize the great desirability of our seeing that *both* these elements of adjustment and distribution are kept in the concept of guidance that should dominate the practices in guidance in our schools. One who reads the literature in the field frequently gains the impressions that one or other is being left out of account. Both elements are vital. They are both demanded by our highly and increasingly popularized secondary education. We may recall once more that this popularization has brought into the schools on the secondary level rapidly increasing proportions of types of pupils formerly seldom if ever seen there. It will tax all the resources at our command to adapt the training program within the schools to them, and to effect the adjustment of the pupil to such programs as we may see fit to provide. Notwithstanding its importance, this is far from all that is required. There is the complex economic and social life outside to which this large and increasing secondary-school population must be effectively distributed. Factors of this complexity are the increasing specialization of occupation, the shifts represented in the appearance of new occupations to take the place of the old, the shift of the rural population to urban centers, and the changing economic status of woman. In this complex situation self-finding of vocations is extremely wasteful to the individual and to society. In view of the profound influences at work both within and without the secondary school, it is unquestionably timely for this

Association to have an active Committee on Guidance and otherwise to stimulate the study of guidance problems.

Then Professor Jesse B. Davis of Boston University spoke briefly of his part in the production of Bulletin 19.

Mr. Merle Prunty, Principal of Central High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, read his paper, *A High-School Vocational Guidance Program in Operation*.

A HIGH-SCHOOL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN OPERATION

MERLE PRUNTY,

PRINCIPAL, SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, TULSA, OKLAHOMA

The choice of a life work is one of the most important decisions that a young person is ever called upon to make. It determines in the main the scope of his service, the degree of his success, and the extent of his happiness. Both the opportunities and the obligations of youth in the increasingly complex society of our day are many and varied. Youth must, as a consequence, not only discover but must assume wisely and well its share in the world's work if the future of our citizenship is to remain secure. I believe therefore that no greater obligation rests upon the high schools of to-day than that of giving vocational guidance information and supervision in such a fashion that youth will determine upon his life work and as a consequence head directly and economically in his educational activities for the chosen objective.

Within recent years young people from every stratum of our complex society have poured into the high schools at an amazingly increasing rate. They have either come voluntarily or have been required by statute to come and partake of the free advantages designed by society to equip them for the effective discharge of adult responsibilities demanded in a democracy. At the same time with almost reckless abandon, many new subjects of study possessing vocational values have found recognition in our already elaborate high-school curriculums. Bewildering elective opportunities with relatively few core requirements have replaced in the main stratified and traditional

courses of study until in many of our large high schools the consumption of all the elective offerings would require almost the normal expectancy of human life.

How can the immature high-school student be led to choose profitably for vocational preparation from among the varied and complex offerings? The answer can be had only in a functioning program of individual orientation through educational guidance, a program which takes adequate account of students who are obliged to leave school before graduation; which provides carefully for students who will not continue in school beyond graduation; which has thorough regard for students planning to enter various higher institutions of learning; a program which derives with precision all the knowledge possible about the social background, interests, abilities, weaknesses, and attitudes of students and applies appropriate educational treatment, meanwhile observing and recording systematically the results achieved by students both in the school and in the life situations beyond whether in a life pursuit or in a college course.

The means employed in Tulsa Senior High School for imparting occupational information and for directing the choice of a life work and the assumption of educational preparation for such work are as follows:

1. A comprehensive study of occupations.
2. A systematic study both of immediate and remote educational opportunities which prepare for various types of occupations.
3. A study of conditions favorable to securing and retaining a position.
4. A guidance organization within the faculty based on personnel, educational and vocational information.

The Study of Occupations.—The study of occupations scheduled in the social science department is required of all students upon entering the senior high school. I should prefer to have this course required in the junior high school but certain administrative disadvantages which we have thus far not been able to overcome have made this impossible. This course is taught in the main in segregated classes by experienced men and women whose graduate work has been done in the field of occupational guidance and counselling. The occupations classrooms are filled with valuable vocational books and

guidance material with sufficient duplication to provide for all the students in a given period. The laboratory method of instruction is used during the sixty-minute period available for all classes. Teachers of all subjects in the high school are urged to recognize and emphasize the relational values of their subjects to the successful pursuit of various vocations. Extensive correlation exists between the English department and the occupations courses in readings and oral and written compositions. An organized system of interviews, talks from leading representatives of various vocations in the community, and visits to local institutions proves an invaluable means of deriving direct occupational information.

The occupations course follows a syllabus on vocational guidance prepared by one of our instructors in occupations.* The chief value of this syllabus is its carefully selected bibliography and thought-provoking exercises appended to the study of each vocation. The essential steps which we observe in the analysis of occupational information as a background for intelligent vocational choices are detailed in the bulletin on guidance issued by the guidance committee of this association.† I shall therefore only mention that the occupational analysis includes a consideration of the following: (1) The importance of the occupation, (2) the work done in the occupation, (3) the income of the occupation, (4) the preparation required for the vocation, (5) the advantages and disadvantages of the occupation, and (6) the general requirements of the occupation.

Analysis of Immediate and Remote Educational Opportunities.—Not only is an analysis of occupational information in our occupations course, but there is likewise in this course a careful analysis of educational opportunities. The educational opportunities open to students are also a part of the home room programs. Pupils in the junior high schools are given a knowledge of educational opportunities open to them both in the junior and senior high schools. Students of the senior high school are made further aware of their educational opportunities in high school and in addition of those in higher institutions beyond the high school. Junior and senior high-school manuals of administration which are studied in the home rooms of each institution and exploratory classroom experiences give both educa-

*Teeter, Verl A. *Syllabus on Vocational Guidance*. Chicago: Macmillan Co., 1928.

†pp. 21-26, Bulletin 19, N. A. S-S. P.

tional and occupational information of great guidance value. The aims of the home room and occupations courses of study on educational opportunities and the manner in which they are analyzed are also included in the guidance manual of this association and I shall not take your time to enumerate them here.*

Factors Favorable to Securing and Retaining a Position.—Our vocational guidance program includes in addition to occupational and educational information a study of the factors which enable one both to secure and retain a position. The heads of the various vocational departments in addition to the dean of boys and dean of girls assist students in securing positions in the community for which they are prepared or in which they can function satisfactorily.

An analysis of the factors mentioned are included in the guidance bulletin of this association and I shall pass any discussion of them, trusting that you who are interested in this phase of the discussion can turn to the guidance bulletin for it.†

You will however I believe be interested in the organization of the faculty for personnel guidance effort.

How Guidance is Organized.—The various phases of guidance operating in the Tulsa Senior High School include: (1) A carefully organized and directed home room system; (2) Curricularized extra-curriculum activities; (3) Two and three-hour combination courses; (4) Reorganized courses of study and revised methods of teaching in homogeneously grouped classes; (5) Amended graduation requirements including thirty-six credits; (6) A daily schedule admitting students to a work, study, and play program; and (7) A carefully selected library of vocational information. The school day which provides for guidance consists of a thirty-minute home room period, six clock-hour recitation periods clear of passing time, and a thirty minute lunch period. All teachers of work and play subjects, such as art, commerce, science, music, physical education, manual training, and home economics teach six groups of students daily. All regular teachers of study subjects teach five groups and have study groups in their rooms during their sixth period. Sixty-eight of the eighty-two full time classroom teachers of the staff are at present assigned to home rooms in addition to the teaching loads mentioned above. The

*p. 16, Bulletin 19, N. A. S-S. P.

†pp. 24, 25; *ibid.*

fifteen administrative directors are relieved of a portion of the regular teaching load, but every administrator including the principal is assigned classroom teaching. A description of the foregoing phases of guidance is already in print.* From a general standpoint they are vital. I shall, however, confine myself to a discussion only of those guidance features in the home room program which are more strictly vocational in value.

Guidance Thru Home Room Organization.—The high-school student body of approximately thirty-two hundred members is this year assigned to sixty-eight home rooms, twenty-nine of which are for sophomores, twenty-one for juniors, and eighteen for seniors. In view of the fact that students are grouped homogeneously in their academic classes and segregated in much of their study and play work, we make each home room assignment as nearly a cross section of its class as possible. A personnel class director with two assistant class directors is assigned to each of the three groups of home room students and home room teachers. The class directors are trained administrators and counsellors. They integrate the home room programs and guidance activities for each class. The sophomore director retains her assignment permanently. Her most important function each semester is the induction into the senior high school of the students completing the junior high school. This induction involves numerous meetings with the groups and the individuals of the groups in the six junior high schools. All of the information that can be made available through the personnel records in use in the junior high school is considered by the sophomore director in working out the three-year course sheets to be followed by the junior high school students entering senior high school. The senior high school manual of administration and a letter to parents from the senior high-school principal regarding purposeful choice of high-school subjects are in the hands of the junior high school students, home room teachers and patrons during the last year in the junior high school. The letter follows:

In ever increasing numbers, boys and girls from the elementary schools, the country over, are pouring into the high schools for additional education. The high school is rapidly coming to be a part of

*Prunty, Merle C., "A Description of the Guidance Program in Tulsa Central High School" *The Vocational Guidance Magazine*, December 1927, pp. 122-128.

the common school education of all the children of all the people. High-school graduates promise to be more common among the men and women of to-morrow than grade school graduates are in our adult population of to-day. In recent years the courses of study in American high schools have been greatly enriched by the addition of many subjects intended to give specific training for the immediate assumption of a definite vocation.

In my opinion the most fruitful opportunity of Tulsa High School in coöperation with the parents of its students is so to guide its students in choosing subjects of study that they will be specifically equipped following graduation to do well a work which they enjoy, which society wants done, and for which society as a consequence will reward them liberally. About two-thirds of the graduates of Tulsa High School each year enter immediately some life pursuit; the remainder enter college. For some types of special and skillful service to society a college training is required while for many other types of work it is not in the least necessary. It is common knowledge that most of the "white collar" positions and professions are to-day already well over crowded. As I see it the most important problem in the educational training of our boys and girls is to urge and guide their decision upon a life work and then to direct effectively their training toward their chosen goal.

Much loss of time, energy, and income is the result of aimless effort in high school. Students who do not plan to go to college should elect from the high school offerings those subjects which equip them for specific life pursuits. Abundant opportunities in Tulsa and its vicinity await the graduates of Tulsa High School in oil fields, refineries, offices, banks, stores, factories, shops, hospitals, homes, and on farms. Courses are offered in Tulsa High School in oil field mapping, shopwork, machine drawing, surveying, architecture, electrical appliances, auto mechanics, carpentry, cabinet making, commercial art, banking, bookkeeping, office appliances, filing, stenography, typewriting, salesmanship, printing, press work, linotyping, millinery, dressmaking, interior decoration, dietetics, agriculture, geology, physics, chemistry, journalism, and music, all of which equip students to succeed in these fields immediately upon finishing the special courses.

Students going to college should take only a very limited amount of any of the above mentioned special courses. In the main, the

colleges demand for entrance, credits in English, mathematics, foreign language, science and history. The minimum entrance requirements for most middle western and western universities and colleges are two years of mathematics, two years of one foreign language, two years of history, two years of science, and three years of English. College entrance requirements, however, vary greatly. The minimum requirements for most eastern universities are four years of English; three years of Latin and two years of Spanish or French; three years of mathematics; two years of history, and two years of science. Students and parents should decide on the college to be attended and then select the high-school subjects which absolutely meet the college's entrance requirements.

This letter is addressed to high-school patrons of Tulsa with the sincere hope and urge that thoughtful consideration be given to such a choice of subjects as will certainly equip our boys and girls for the opportunities that lie out just ahead of them on new levels of life either in an immediate life pursuit or in a college course. Within the next few days students will be making their choice of subjects for next semester. For those who are in the earlier years of the high school, a course for the remainder of the high-school work should be fully planned now not only for next year but for each of the succeeding high-school years. The home room teachers, class directors, department directors, deans, and principal, either individually or collectively will be glad to counsel carefully with patrons and students together in laying out purposeful courses from among the varied offerings.

I most cordially invite your helpful coöperation in guiding our boys and girls in a choice of subjects which will contribute directly to a definite life plan."

The selection of senior high-school subjects is therefore a thoughtful and carefully administered procedure with a definite vocational goal in mind. At each registration period all of the personnel information available in the records of the school is in the hands of the class director for her aid in purposeful guidance of individual students. The junior and senior directors are promoted with their classes. The original group of home room teachers assigned to a class go through the three year period with the same group of students in so far as this is administratively possible. If due to shrinkage in enrollment a home room must be discontinued the students are dis-

tributed to all of the home rooms of the class so that the home room teacher has only a few new students and parents with which she and her group must become acquainted each year. The students of each home room elect each year a patron or patroness from among the parents of the home room group. These patrons are frequently in the home rooms and class assemblies. The patrons of the home rooms in each class are organized with their patron president and class patron officers. The three patron presidents of each class sit with the executive committee of the high-school parent-teacher association and serve as an unique and ready means for home contacts and for discussing home room, class and school policies in which parents may be of help.

Results of Guidance.—I mentioned at the outset of this discussion the necessity of observing and recording the results of guidance effort. We have found that the recording and analysis of such information has in itself furnished us with excellent guidance material to be used both with students and patrons. Within the past two years two masters theses submitted to the faculties of the University of Chicago, and Teachers College, Columbia University have dealt with our experiences with our vocational guidance program. These have revealed to us the extent to which our vocational guidance has functioned and has enabled us to evaluate the various features of the program. Both of these theses were follow up studies. One of them was made to determine the extent to which vocational choices made in the sophomore year by different types of students continued throughout the high-school course.* We found that 72.4% of the students did not change their original choice. Twenty-three and five-tenths per cent changed their choice, but only 4.1% of the students at graduation time still had no choice of vocation. The second thesis was a study of the extent to which the high-school courses of a given graduating class met the demands of the life situations in which the students found themselves.†

Conclusion.—Our guidance machinery seems adequate, but we are not wholly satisfied with the results. Continued study and evaluation of effort is necessary. The greatest obstacles at present are the atti-

*Beckington, Lulu B. "Experiences with a Vocations Program in Home Room Organization" *Teachers College Record*, February 1927, pp. 563-579.

†Prunty, Merle C. "A Study of the Graduates of the Class of 1925 of the High School of Tulsa, Oklahoma," University of Chicago, August 1927.

tude of some patrons toward the program and the shifting interests of students. There are parents who want their children to follow in their footsteps. Others wish their children to pursue a profession for which they have neither the intelligence nor an aptitude. Still others are unwilling to have their children prepare for any particular objective. These cases to be sure are in the minority, yet they are cause for concern. Just to the extent, I believe, that we can gather and make use of scientifically tested vocational material can we hope to overcome our chief difficulties and deficiencies. We do believe, however, that the most consequential efforts which we are making in our high school at present are those which surround the thoughtful administration of the guidance program. On the whole the faculty and community are sold on the program and we hope to improve it as scientific study of its results shows us the way.

Mr. W. C. Reavis, Assistant Professor of Education, University of Chicago, spoke on the scope and content of Bulletin 19.

A complimentary motion of approval of the report and dismissal of committee. Carried.

In pursuance of the motion on p. 245 of Bulletin 15, Mr. M. R. McDaniel reported as follows:

CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEE

Chairman: DR. JUDD

Professors of Secondary Education:

L. V. Koos, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
William Proctor, Stanford University, Stanford, California.
Jesse B. Davis, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

From State Departments of Education:

A. B. Meredith, Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Conn.
Samuel M. North, Supervisor of High Schools, Baltimore, Md.
Wm. H. Bristow, Dept. of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

Superintendents:

Frank G. Pickell, Board of Education, Montclair, N. J.
Wm. F. Ewing, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Oakland, California.

High School Principals:

Francis L. Bacon, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.
Milo Stuart, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.
L. W. Smith, Principal of High School, Joliet, Illinois.
V. K. Froula, Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Washington.

Mr. H. Ellsworth Warner, Principal of Hine Junior High School, Washington, D. C., read the following resolutions:

WHEREAS many city superintendents of schools are each year dismissed for purely political and factional reasons, and

WHEREAS the adequate tenure for city school superintendents is just as advantageous to the best interests of American education as that of teacher tenure, and

WHEREAS city superintendents the country over have coöperated effectively in the work for better teacher tenure,

BE IT RESOLVED, That this organization favors and urges the adoption of, and legislation for, more adequate superintendency tenure throughout the country, in the best interests of American schools, American school children, and the teaching profession.

RESOLVED, That inasmuch as "the first secondary school in America, as far as we have information, was the Public Latin School, established in Boston in 1635." (From L. V. Koos "The American Secondary School," 1927, page 17.)

RESOLVED, That the incoming President should appoint a committee of three (3) to study into the advisability of arranging for some sort of nationwide recognition during the year 1935 of the 300th anniversary of American Secondary Education, said committee to report back to this body in convention assembled one year from this date.

At this time the Chairman of the Nominating Committee gave the following report:

PRESIDENT

J. STEVENS KADESCH

Head Master, Senior High School, Medford, Massachusetts.

FIRST VICE-PRESIDENT

TRUMAN G. REED

Principal, Central Intermediate High School, Wichita, Kansas.

SECOND VICE-PRESIDENT

WM. FERDINAND EWING, *Assistant Superintendent,*

Principal of Schools, Oakland, California.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

GALEN JONES

Principal, High School, Port Arthur, Texas.

E. H. KEMPER McCOMB

*Principal, Emmerich Manual Training High School
Indianapolis, Indiana.*

FOR THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE

ERNEST G. OSGOOD

Chairman

A. W. LOWE, Portland, Maine.

WM. C. HILL, Springfield, Mass.

CHARLES C. TILLINGHAST, New York.

M. CHANNING WAGNER, Wilmington, Del.

GALEN JONES, Port Arthur, Texas.

MERLE C. PRUNTY, Tulsa, Oklahoma.

L. W. BROOKS, Wichita, Kansas.

HARRY V. KEPNER, Denver, Colorado.

The President asked for nominations from the floor. None.
Carried.

The incoming officers of the Department were called to the platform.

Mr. F. J. DuFrain of Pontiac, Michigan, of the auditing committee, reported that the books of treasurer were scanned and reported in good order.

REPORT OF TREASURER

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

JANUARY 1, 1927 TO DECEMBER 31, 1927

PRESENTED AT BOSTON, FEBRUARY 27, 1928

RECEIPTS

Balance in bank, December 31, 1926.....		\$7,481.04
Annual dues from members.....	\$3,792.00	
Sale of Yearbooks.....	186.75	
Sale of Abstracts.....	3.02	
Sale of Uniform Certificate Blanks.....	70.61	
Honor Society Fees.....	4,904.57	
Exhibit booth rentals at St. Louis.....	330.00	9,286.95
		<hr/>
		\$16,767.99

EXPENDITURES

SECRETARY'S OFFICE

Clerical services.....	\$ 993.32	
Postage.....	80.00	
Printing.....	19.00	
Refund of dues to members.....	6.00	
Exchange.....	.40	

EXPENDED FOR N.E.A.

Rubber stamp.....	\$3.25	
Time checks.....	3.00	6.25
		<hr/>
		\$1,104.97

HONOR SOCIETY

Postage.....	\$ 107.39	
Charters.....	309.00	
Refund of charter fees.....	10.00	426.39
		<hr/>

BULLETIN No. 14 (January, 1927)

Printing.....	\$ 215.50	
Postage.....	6.15	221.65
		<hr/>

BULLETIN No. 15 (Eleventh Yearbook)

Printing.....	\$ 1,491.66	
Postage.....	29.64	
Mailing.....	45.00	1,566.30
		<hr/>

BULLETIN No. 16 (<i>April, 1927, Directory</i>)		
Printing (first payment).....	\$ 300.00	
(balance due \$250)		
Postage.....	13.17	
Mailing.....	25.00	\$338.17
BULLETIN No. 17 (<i>May, 1927</i>)		
Printing.....	\$ 207.75	
Postage.....	7.79	215.54
BULLETIN No. 18 (<i>October, 1927</i>)		
Printing.....	\$ 187.50	
Postage.....	6.69	
Mailing.....	30.00	224.19
CONVENTION IN ST. LOUIS, 1927		
Printing preliminary programs.....	\$ 33.69	
Badges.....	136.92	
Signs in hotel.....	4.50	
Expenses of President (M. R. McDaniel)...	105.86	
Traveling expenses, President.....	34.80	
Printing final programs.....	48.00	
Traveling expenses, Secretary.....	36.90	
Railroad tickets.....	29.36	
Honorariums.....	378.75	
Expenses of clerk.....	41.87	
Expenses of speakers, traveling and hotel...	364.42	
Typewriting of committee report.....	3.00	
Expenses, Committee International Under- standing.....	11.28	1,229.35
COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE		
Meeting in Chicago, May 8 and 9, 1927....	\$ 641.37	641.37
Delegates to Meeting of World Federation of Education Associations, Toronto, Canada, August 7-12, 1927.....	\$ 246.37	246.37
BONDS		
10 First mortgage, real estate bonds, 6%....	\$10,000.00	
Accrued interest on bonds at purchase..	154.14	
Rental (one year) of safety deposit vault box	3.00	10,157.14
EXHIBITS, ST. LOUIS MEETING		
Booth construction.....	\$ 30.00	30.00
Meeting of Committee on Standard Blank (Cicero, Illinois, December 5, 1927)....	\$ 36.07	36.07
Expenses of Wm. Wetzel to meeting of Executive Committee of National Com- mittee on Research in Secondary Edu- cation at Washington, June 6, 1927....	\$ 19.97	19.97
		16,457.48
		\$310.51
Balance in bank, December 31, 1927.....	\$ 10.51	

Meeting of the National Council of the National Honor Society of Secondary Schools at Hotel Statler, Boston, Massachusetts, Sunday, February 26, at 5 P.M.

Present: President Edward Rynearson, M. R. McDaniel, E. J. Eaton, Merle Prunty, and H. V. Church. Absent: L. W. Brooks, R. R. Cook, L. W. Smith, and W. E. Wing.

The minutes of the meetings of the National Council of February 24 and February 26, 1927, were read and approved.

The terms of the following members of the National Council expire: R. R. Cook, Merle Prunty, and L. W. Smith. The succeeding were placed in nomination: P. C. Bunn, H. V. Kepner, Charles E. Keyes, R. R. Cook, Merle Prunty, and L. W. Smith. To fill vacancy for the unexpired term of C. P. Briggs, deceased, E. H. Kemper McComb and Walter Downey were nominated.

The revision of the constitution so as to bring the aim of high scholarship before a larger portion of the student body was discussed.

On motion of Merle Prunty the Council adjourned.

PROMOTION OF INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

L. W. BROOKS,

PRINCIPAL OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, WICHITA, KANSAS

*(Read at meeting of World Federation of Education Associations,
Toronto, Canada, August, 1927)*

I have been invited to discuss some of the subjects which lend themselves to incidental instruction in the promotion of international understanding. After a consideration of the curricula available to me I should like respectfully to suggest the following list:

History	Foods and Clothing
Social Science	Commerce
Economics	Music
Geography	Art { Fine Commercial Applied
Government	Literature
Foreign Language	Science
Esperanto	Physical Education
International Law (?)	Ethics
Biography	Public Speaking

Many of the above subjects were discussed at the Edinburgh meeting.

The subject of history has doubtless the greatest possibilities in the development of the program of understanding. In my opinion the most significant suggestion in this field was the one to develop a series of textbooks which should be written by an international committee, in order to eliminate the bias. In the states I know of one firm of publishers that issues two textbooks in history—one for use in the North and the other in the South. Buy the prejudice that suits you best! We shall never attain the best understanding between nations until the *truth* instead of propaganda is printed in textbooks. A college professor from the States, visiting in a German University heard the German Professor of History state vociferously to his class that the United States of America is a hard-fisted, money grubbing,

land-grabbing, materialistic, cowardly Shylock, whose only excuse for existence was to line its pockets by the sufferings of other peoples. On the other hand, an essay written in England—supposedly in the interests of peace—states just as positively, but perhaps with less heat, that the States are idealistic, but impractical; that they need the ballast and poise of Britain to offset their dreamy, ethereality, or words to that effect. One of these statements might be true, but certainly not both! One of the favorite indoor sports of an occasional citizen of my country is “twisting the Lion’s tail to hear him roar” (we are thankful that such citizens are few); while American prohibition is the subject of perennial jocosity by the typical Briton. The same essay, referred to above, states that only a few people living on or near the Atlantic sea-board have any conception of European affairs, but passed glibly on matters of the Central West about which the writer apparently knew less than nothing, for he (or she) had *wrong* information. Long distance judgments of that sort are dangerous. They are loaded with explosives, and they cause much unnecessary ill-feeling. If people of different countries would withhold judgment on such matters until they were *sure* of their information, considering it as an interesting point of view rather than something to be *combatted*, matters between different peoples would be much more amicable. And so in like manner, judgment on our neighbors’ attitude in matters of history would be much more kindly and much more fair. Give the children the truth! That is the best propaganda. In the past, many writers of history have, consciously or unconsciously, colored the facts to make their own countries stand out in the right. “My country, right or wrong” is a pernicious doctrine. If there is something wrong with my country, let me try to “get the machinery going” to have it corrected. Much has been said about teaching nationalism or, on the other hand, internationalism. We must not, in our enthusiasm, belittle patriotism; every country is entitled to a proud love of its people; but “patriotism” (truly) is not enough! When the histories of the nations shall have been rewritten by a group of historians who have frankly tried to eliminate the venom, the untruths and half-truths; the hate, the suspicion and the propaganda; and when the children of another generation have been taught toleration, respect for others, helpful coöperation and the truth about history, then we may have some cause for hope for the future.

A subject not before mentioned in any of the discussions, so far as I am able to discover, is the subject of public speaking. There are few subjects in the curriculum that lend themselves so well to our program, as public speaking does. It helps the pupil to develop proper methods of research; it helps him to analyze his material, separating important matter from that which is irrelevant and immaterial; it helps him to arrange his matter in an orderly and logical way; and it helps him, after all the intellectual preliminaries are cared for, to present his case in the most effective way to convince his hearers. The student is not limited to any particular content of subject matter, or to any particular field of thought. Instruction in public speaking is one of the most important factors in the preparation for leadership in the community. Properly taught, it requires the broadest preparation, the keenest use of the intellect, and an all-around development of personality. Pupils who expect to enter politics cannot do better than devote much time to public speaking. Not only does it help in the sifting of material and in formal public speech, but it gives confidence and poise that are desirable in conferences with individuals, or with boards, committees, and other small groups. For the lawyer, the clergyman, the teacher, such training is almost indispensable. Let us see what a class in public speech could do with such a subject as the Locarno Pact. The first assignment includes the acquisition of all books, magazines, newspapers, or other publications containing literature on the subject. This material is placed at the disposal of the class. Each individual is assigned some definite phase of the subject, or some definite article to read and analyze. The matter is sifted, digested, and arranged in logical form. Each pupil in turn presents his case while the rest of the class take notes. When the case is pretty well covered, one member of the class is selected to present the matter to the school. If other schools are interested and are doing similar work, contests between schools may be arranged (and since this would all be in the interest of peace, it might be a *non-decision* contest or debate, letting the interest center around the subject itself, rather than around a decision as to who is the best). For several years past there has been an oratorical contest in the states, using for the general theme, "Our Constitution." A long series of contests is held, culminating in a national contest. Much interest in our government has grown out of this movement. Such a movement or institution might be inaugurated by this body, and in-

clude the whole of the civilized world in its scope, using some phase of international good will as its subject. Public speech has great possibilities for use in our program.

There is a movement, somewhat new, in our country, which looks toward the development of a technique for education of the *emotions* of the pupil. We are inclined to smile when "emotion" or "sentiment" is mentioned. But we must distinguish between "emotion" and "emotionalism" and between "sentiment" and "sentimentality." There is no other moving factor in the world so great as *sentiment*. The sentiment of patriotism has utterly changed the current of history; and let us hope that the sentiment of love for all mankind may ultimately direct it along new lines until it arrives at the goal of universal peace. I believe this to be possible. And so, it would be very desirable if some educational prophet might arise and develop a method of educating the emotions of our children. How it is to be done, I have no very definite idea; but it seems to me to be possible. Think what the possibilities would be if the coming generation could be taught so that the emotions of friendly affection and good will would eventuate when a thought stimulus, such as the word "foreigner" is presented. Think what would happen if the stimulus "patriotism" could produce an emotional reaction which would be so broad that it would include in its scope the whole of mankind! If such a thing could be done; if pupils could be taught in such a way that the emotional life could be rationalized or that the intellectual life could be emotionalized, what wonderful things could be accomplished! Some psychologist can make everlasting fame for himself, and do incalculable good to the human race if he can bring something of this sort into being. The possibilities of this movement may be better realized by a group like this, if you will try to analyze your feelings when such stimuli as the following are presented before your consciousness: bandit, fundamentalist, Lindbergh, nausea, mountain, adore, Mussolini, 110°, the North Pole, flapper, Apollo, etc., etc.

Most of the subjects included in my list have been discussed either here or at Edinburgh. I just wish to say in conclusion, that I regard this matter of better understanding between peoples to be the most important question in the world to-day. If education is to win in the race with catastrophe, it will be necessary that you and I forget many of our hates and jealousies and prejudices, and develop a new method of thinking. Our emotions must be revised, and our attitudes

toward our brothers in other lands must take a new direction. Our race hatreds, our religious intolerance, our suspicions and animosities between various economic and social levels must be dissipated.

The whole structure of society must be sublimated and refined into a new substance which will be without the harmful ingredients. The vision of a dreamer? Perhaps. At least the most promising door to this new world lies in the direction of our schools. Let us lay the foundations for a better to-morrow for our children. If we do not know all that we should do, let us make the most of the materials that we have, and go forward with faith in the justice and righteousness of our case, believing that the ideal of world peace and good will will ultimately eventuate.

CONSTITUTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this Department shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—AIM

The aim of this Department is to promote the interests of secondary education in America by giving a special consideration to the problems that arise in connection with the administration of secondary schools.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1—Membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of Active and Associate.

SECTION 2—All Principals of Secondary Schools, namely Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools, and Junior Colleges, their administrative and executive assistants, Heads of Schools of Education in Normal Schools, Colleges, and Universities, together with Professors teaching Secondary Education therein and Secondary-School Representatives of State Education Departments, who are also members of the N. E. A., shall be eligible to Active Membership upon payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$2.00. Active members shall have the privilege of voting.

SECTION 3—Members of State Organizations of Secondary-School Principals shall be eligible to Associate Membership of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, as a group, by the payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$1.00.*

SECTION 4—All others engaged in Secondary Education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible

*Note: This clause shall become inoperative as soon as the respective state organizations can work out provisions for enlisting their membership as active members of this department.

to Associate Membership upon payment to the Secretary, of the annual fee of \$1.00.

SECTION 5—All members both Active and Associate shall receive all publications of the Department.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1—Officers of this Department shall be a President, First Vice-President, Second Vice-President, and Executive Secretary, who shall be the executive officer of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2—The Executive Committee shall consist of these officers, the retiring President, and two members of the Department. The Executive Committee shall be representative of Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools and Junior Colleges.

ARTICLE V—ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1—At the first session of the annual mid-winter meeting a nominating committee of nine shall be elected by ballot from a list of at least eighteen members nominated from the floor. This committee shall elect a Chairman, select nominees for all offices except the Executive Secretary, and report at the regular business session of the mid-winter meeting. After the report of the nominating committee the President of the Department shall call for other nominations for the different offices and for the membership on the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2—The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee for an indefinite period.

ARTICLE VI—MEETINGS

SECTION 1—The Department of Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting to be held at the time and place of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

SECTION 2—The second meeting of the Department shall be held at the time and place of the annual summer meeting of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

